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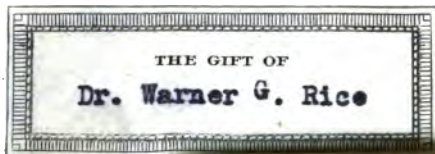
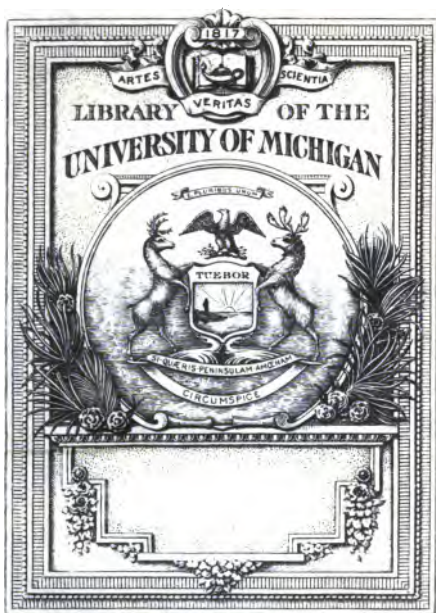
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Johnson - 7. 1. 1828

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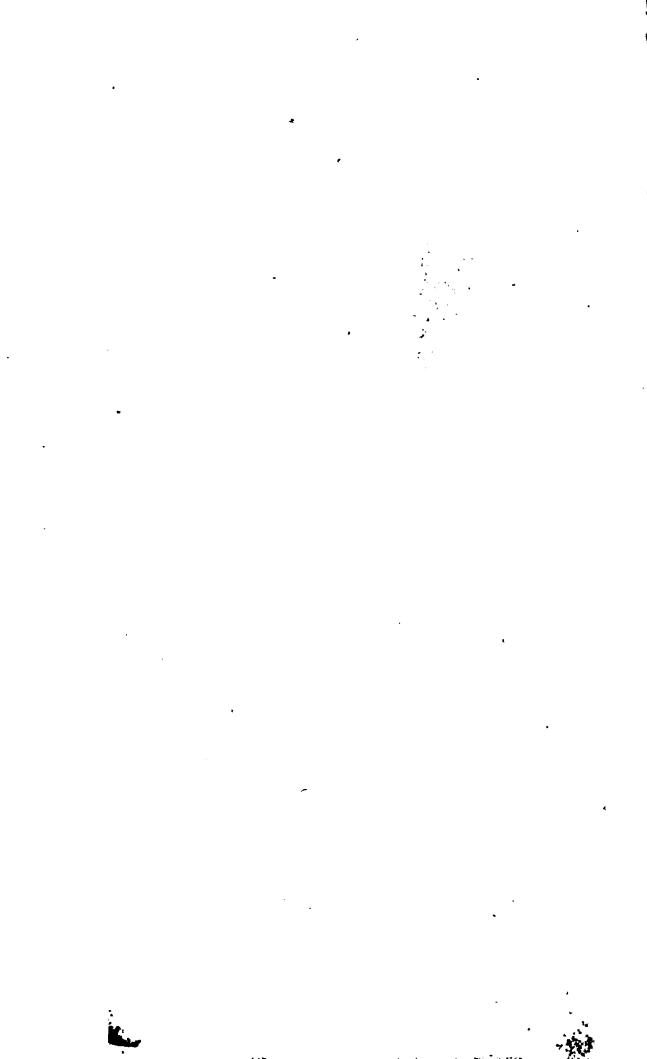
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STEREOTYPE EDITION.

A

HISTORY

OF THE

UNITED STATES

OF

America,

ON A PLAN

ADAPTED TO THE CAPACITY OF YOUTH

AND

DESIGNED TO AID THE MEMORY

BY

SYSTEMATIC ARRANGEMENT AND INTERESTING
ASSOCIATIONS.

ILLUSTRATED BY ENGRAVINGS

BY REV. CHARLES A. GOODRICH.

SEVENTEENTH EDITION.

BELLOWS FALLS:
PUBLISHED BY JAMES I. CUTLER & Co.
1888.

DISTRICT OF CONNECTICUT, ss.

Be it remembered, That on the twenty-ninth day of April, in the forty-sixth year of the Independence of the United States of America, Charles A. Goodrich, of said District, hath deposited in this Office, the title of a Book, the right whereof he claims as author, in the words following, to wit :

"A History of the United States of America, on a plan adapted to the capacity of youth, and designed to aid the memory by systematick arrangement and interesting associations. Illustrated by engravings. By Rev. Charles A. Goodrich."

In Conformity to the Act of the Congress of the United States, entitled, "An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to Authors and Proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned."

CHAS. A. INGERSOLL,

Clerk of the District of Connecticut.

A true copy of Record, examined and sealed by me,

CHAS. A. INGERSOLL,

Clerk of the District of Connecticut.

REMARKS ON USING THIS WORK.

1. The *General Division*, should first be very thoroughly committed to memory.
2. That portion of the work which is in larger type, embraces the leading subjects of the history, and should be committed to memory by the pupil. That part which is in smaller type should be carefully perused.
3. It is recommended to the teachers not to make a severe examination of a pupil, until the second or third time going through the book. This particularly should be observed in regard to young and backward pupils.

Dr. T. M. G. Rice
12-19-41
add. ed.

Introduction.

What are the uses and advantages of History?

1. History sets before us striking instances of virtue, enterprise, courage, generosity, patriotism; and, by natural principle of emulation, incites us to copy such noble examples. History also presents us with pictures of the vicious ultimately overtaken by misery and shame, and thus solemnly warns us against vice.

2. History, to use the words of Professor Tytler, is the school of politics. That is, it opens the hidden springs of human affairs; the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions and fall of empires; it points out the influence which the manners of a people exert upon a government, and the influence which that government reciprocally exerts upon the manners of a people; it illustrates the blessings of political union, and the miseries of faction; the dangers of unbridled liberty, and the mischiefs of despotic power.

3. *Observation.* In a free country, where every man may be called upon to discharge important duties, either by his vote or by the administration of office, it is the business of all to be more or less acquainted with the science of politics. Nothing can better instruct us in this, than the study of history.

4. History displays the dealings of God with mankind. It calls upon us often to regard with awe, his darker judgments, and again it awakens the liveliest emotions of gratitude, for his kind and benignant dispensations. It cultivates a sense of dependence on him; strengthens our confidence in his benevolence; and impresses us with a conviction of his justice.

5. Besides these advantages, the study of History, if properly conducted, offers others, of inferior importance, indeed, but still they are not to be disregarded. It chastens the imagination: improves the taste; furnishes matter for reflection; enlarges the range of thought; strengthens and disciplines the mind.

92-16-92 A.

GENERAL DIVISION.

THE History of the United States of America may be divided into *Eleven Periods*, each distinguished by some striking characteristic, or remarkable circumstance.

The **First Period** will extend from the *Discovery of America, by Columbus, 1492*, to the first permanent English settlement in America, at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607, and is distinguished for **DISCOVERIES**.

Obs. Previous to the discovery of America in 1492, the inhabitants of Europe, Asia, and Africa, were of course ignorant of its existence. But soon after this event, several expeditions were fitted out, and came to make discoveries, in what was then called the "New World." Accordingly, between 1492 and 1607, the principal countries lying along the eastern coast of North America, were discovered, and more or less explored. Our history, during this period, embraces little more than accounts of these expeditions, we characterize it as remarkable for *discoveries*.

The **Second Period** will extend from the *Settlement of Jamestown, 1607*, to the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689, and is distinguished for **SETTLEMENTS**.

Obs. During this period, our history is principally occupied in detailing the various *settlements*, which were either effected or attempted, within the boundaries of the United States. It includes indeed, wars with the natives—disputes between proprietors of lands, and colonies—the formation of governments, &c. &c.; but these are circumstances which pertain to, and form a part of, the settlement of new countries. As this period embraces the settlement of most of the original States in the Union, viz. Massachusetts, including Maine, Connecticut, Rhode-Island, New-Hampshire, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, North and South Carolina, and Virginia, it is therefore characterized as remarkable for *settlements*.

The **Third Period** will extend from the *Accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689*, to the declaration of the war by England against France, called "the French and Indian War," 1756, and is re-

markable for the three wars of KING WILLIAM, QUEEN ANNE, and GEORGE II.

Obs. So long as the Colonies remained attached to the English crown, they became involved, of course, in the wars of the mother country. Three times during this period, war was proclaimed between England and France, and, as the French had possession of Canada, and were leagued with several powerful tribes of Indians, as often did the colonies become the theatre of their hostile operations. This period is therefore most remarkable for these three wars.

The **Fourth Period** will extend from the *Declaration of war by England against France, 1756*, to the commencement of hostilities by Great Britain against the American Colonies, in the battle of Lexington, 1775, and is distinguished for the **FRENCH and INDIAN WAR**.

The **Fifth Period** will extend from the *Battle of Lexington, 1775*, to the disbanding of the American Army at West Point, New-York 1783, and is distinguished for the **WAR OF THE REVOLUTION**.

The **Sixth Period** will extend from the *Disbanding of the Army, 1783*, to the inauguration of George Washington, as President of the United States, under the Federal Constitution, 1789, and is distinguished for the **FORMATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION**.

The **Seventh Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Washington, 1789*, to the inauguration of John Adams, as President of the United States, 1797. This period is distinguished for **WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION**.

The **Eighth Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Adams, 1797*, to the inauguration of Thomas Jefferson as president of the United States, 1801. This period is distinguished for **ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION**.

The **Ninth Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Jefferson, 1801*, to the inauguration of James Madison as president of the United States, 1809. This period is distinguished for **JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION**.

The **Tenth Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Madison*, 1809, to the inauguration of James Monroe, as president of the United States, 1817. This period is distinguished for **MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION** and the late **WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN**.

The **Eleventh Period** will extend from the *Inauguration of President Monroe*, 1817, to the present time, and is distinguished for **MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION**.

UNITED STATES.

HEROLD X.

DISTINGUISHED FOR DISCOVERIES.



Discovery of San Salvadore, 1492.

Extending from the Discovery of San Salvadore by Columbus, 1492, to the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, (Virginia,) 1607.

Sec. I. The early discoveries on the Continent of America were made by the Spaniards, English, and French. In these, the Spaniards took the lead; and have the honour of first communicating to Europe the intelligence of a New World.

For several years previously to the discovery of America, the attention of Europe had been drawn to the

enterprises of the Portuguese, who were attempting to discover a passage to the East Indies, by doubling the southern extremity of Africa.

Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, roused by these enterprises, and persuaded that a western passage to the East Indies was practicable, by steering across the Atlantick, determined to ascertain the point by experiment.

Accordingly, after encountering various difficulties he sailed from Spain, Friday, Aug. 3d, 1492, with a small fleet, under the patronage of Ferdinand and Isabella, then on the united thrones of Castile and Arragon; and on the 2th of Oct. 1492, discovered the Island *San Salvador*. This island is three thousand miles west of the Canaries, —the most western land known at the time of Columbus' discovery,—and is now known as one of the Bahamas.

Columbus, after maturing his plan, first offered to sail under the patronage of the Senate of Genoa, but they treated his project as visionary. He next solicited the patronage of the Portuguese, but was denied.

Disappointed in these applications, and despairing of assistance from Henry VII. of England, to whom he had sent his brother Bartholomew, but, who, being captured, did not reach England for several years; Columbus next laid his plans before Ferdinand and Isabella.

Ferdinand was long deaf to his application; but through the favour of Isabella, who listened to his plans, a treaty was made with him. The queen sold her jewels and defrayed the expense of his outfit and voyage. His fleet consisted of the *Santa Maria*, *Pinta*, and *Niña*, with ninety men, victualled for a year. The whole expense was the small sum of about sixteen thousand dollars.

Columbus when he sailed expected to land in India; but providence was opening his way to an unknown world. He first touched at the Canaries, and thence stretched westward to seas as yet unexplored.

After sailing about two months, the crew became anxious and discontented. They were appalled at the extent of their voyage, and despaired of accomplishing the purposes for which it was undertaken. Columbus, however, in the midst of mutiny, and while every heart around him sunk under the most gloomy apprehensions, remained firm and inflexible. He con-

trived to pacify the spirit of rebellion, by promising to return, if land should not be discovered within three days.

The night of the 11th of October, 1492, was memorable to Columbus, and to the world. Convinced from appearances that land was near, he ordered the sails furled, and a watch set. No eye, however, was shut. All on board was suspense and sleepless expectation.

About midnight, the cry of *land! land!* was heard on board the *Pinta*. The morning came,—October 12th O. S.—and realized their anticipations. The island was distinctly in view. The occasion demanded an acknowledgment to Him, who had so auspiciously guided their way. All, therefore, bowed in humble gratitude, and joined in a hymn of thanks to God.

Columbus, in a rich dress, and with a drawn sword, soon after landed with his men, with whom having knelt and kissed the ground with tears of joy, he took formal possession of the Island, in the name of Queen Isabella, his patron. On landing, the Spaniards were surprised to find a race of people, quite unlike any that they had ever seen before. They were of a dusky, copper colour—naked—beardless, with long black hair, floating on their shoulders, or bound in tresses round their heads. The natives were still more surprised at the sight of the Spaniards, whom they considered as the children of the sun, their idol. The ships they looked upon as animals, with eyes of lightning, and voices of thunder.

Having spent some time in examining the country, and in an amicable traffic with the natives, Columbus set sail on his return. He was overtaken by a storm which had nearly proved fatal. During the storm, Columbus hastily enclosed in a cake of wax, a short account of his voyage and discovery, which he put into a tight cask, and threw it into the sea. This he did, hoping that if he perished, it might fall into the hands of some navigator, or be cast ashore, and thus the knowledge of his discovery be preserved to the world. But the storm abated, and he arrived safe in Spain, March 15th, 1493.

For this discovery, it being the first, and having laid the foundation for all the subsequent discoveries in America, Columbus was doubtless entitled to the honour of giving a name to the New World. But he was robbed of it by the address of Americus Vesputius. This adventurer was a Florentine, who sailed to the New World in 1498, with one Alonzo Ojeda, a gallant and active officer, who had accompanied Columbus in his first voyage. On his return, he published so flattering an account of his voyage, that his name was given to the continent with manifest injustice to Columbus.

After this, Columbus made several other voyages, but did

not discover the *continent of America* until Aug. 1, 1498, during his *third voyage*, at which time he made the land, now called *Terra Firma*,—*South America*.

During this voyage Columbus was destined to experience severe afflictions. After his departure from Spain, having been appointed governor of the New World, his enemies, by false representations, persuaded the king to appoint another in his place. At the same time the king was induced to give orders that Columbus should be seized and sent to Spain. This order was executed with rigid severity, and the heroic Columbus returned to Spain in irons!

On his arrival he was set at liberty by the king, but he never recovered his authority. Soon after a fourth voyage which he made, finding Isabella his patroness dead, and himself neglected, he sunk beneath his misfortunes and infirmities, and died, May 20, 1506, in the fifty-ninth year of his age.

II. In May, 1497, John Cabot, and his son, Sebastian Cabot, commenced a voyage of discovery, under the patronage of Henry VII. king of England; and on the 24th of June, discovered land, which, being the first they had seen, they called *Prima Vista*. This was the Island of *Newfoundland*. Leaving this, they soon after fell in with a smaller island, which they named *St. Johns*; thence, continuing westerly, they made the first discovery of the *Continent of America*, and ranged its coast from Labrador to Virginia, or according to others, to Florida.

III. The French attempted no discovery ~~on the~~ American coast until 1524. This year Francis I. commissioned Verrazano, a Florentine, for this purpose. He ranged the coast from Florida to the 50th degree of North Latitude, and named the country New France.

IV. In 1584, Sir Walter Raleigh, under commission of Queen Elizabeth, arrived in America, entered Pamlico Sound, now in North Carolina, and thence proceeded to Roanoke, an island near the mouth of Albemarle Sound. This country he took possession of, and, on returning to England, gave so splendid a description of its beauty and fertility, that Queen Elizabeth bestowed upon it the name of *Virginia*, in celebration of her reign, and in allusion to her being unmarried.

V. In 1602, Capt. Bartholomew Gosnold, from Fal-

mouth, England, discovered and gave name to *Cape Cod*.

Gomold, being bound to Virginia, his discovery was accidental. He named Cape Cod, in reference to the abundance of Codfish about it. Coasting south, he discovered Nantucket, Buzzard's Bay, Martha's Vineyard, and one of the Elizabeth Islands.

Other expeditions were fitted out and came to America for discovery; we have however noticed above the leading adventurers and their discoveries during this period.

Notes.

VI. As we are now about to enter upon a period which will exhibit our ancestors as inhabitants of this new world, it will be interesting to know what was its aspect when they first set their feet upon its shores.

State of the Country.—On the arrival of the first settlers, North America was almost one unbroken wilderness. From the recesses of these forests were heard the panther, the catamount, the bear, the wildcat, the wolf, and other beasts of prey. From the thickets rushed the buffalo, the elk, the moose, and the carrabo; and scattered on the mountains and plains, were seen the stag and fallow deer. Numerous flocks of the feathered tribe enlivened the air, and multitudes of fish filled the rivers, or glided along the shores.

The spontaneous productions of the soil, also, were found to be various and abundant. In all parts of the land grew grapes, which historians have likened to the ancient grapes of Eschol. In the south, were found mulberries, plums, melons, cucumbers, tobacco, corn, peas, beans, potatoes, squashes, pumpions, &c. Acorns, walnuts, chestnuts, wild cherries, currents, strawberries, whortleberries, in the season of them, grew wild in every quarter of the country.

VII. **Aborigines.**—The country was inhabited by numerous tribes or clans of Indians. Of their number, at the period the English settled among them, no certain es

imate has been transmitted to us. They did not probably much exceed 150,000 within the compass of the thirteen original states.*

In their *physical character*, the different Indian tribes, within the boundaries of the United States, were nearly the same. Their persons were tall, straight, and well proportioned. Their skins were red, or of a copper brown; their eyes black, their hair long, black, and coarse. In constitution they were firm and vigorous, capable of sustaining great fatigue and hardship,

As to their *general character*, they were quick of apprehension, and not wanting in genius. At times, they were friendly, and even courteous. In council they were distinguished for gravity and eloquence: in war, for bravery and address. When provoked to anger, they were sullen and retired; and when determined upon revenge, no danger would deter them; neither absence nor time could cool them. If captured by an enemy, they never asked life, nor would they betray emotions of fear, even in view of the tomahawk, or of the kindling faggot.

They had no books, or written *literature*, except rude hieroglyphics; and *education* among them was confined to the arts of war, hunting, fishing, and the few manufactures which existed among them, most of which every male was more or less instructed in. Their language was rude but sonorous, metaphorical, and energetic. It was well suited to the purposes of public speaking, and, when accompanied by impassioned gestures, and uttered with the deep guttural tones of the savage, it is said to have had a singularly wild and impressive effect. They had some few war songs, which were little more than an unmeaning chorus, but it is believed, they had no other compositions which were preserved.

Their *arts and manufactures* were confined to the construction of wigwams, bows and arrows, wampum, ornaments, stone hatchets, mortars for pounding corn, to the dressing of skins, weaving of coarse mats from the bark of trees, or a coarse sort of hemp, &c.

Their *agriculture* was small in extent, and the articles they

* This is the estimate of Dr. Trumbull.

cultivated, were few in number. Corn, beans, peas, potatoes, melons, and a few others of a similar kind, were all.

Their *skill in medicine* was confined to a few simple prescriptions and operations. Both the cold and warm bath were often applied, and a considerable number of plants were used with success. For some diseases they knew no remedy, in which case they resorted to their *Powow*, or priest, who undertook the removal of the disease by means of sorcery.

It may be remarked, however, that the *diseases* to which the Indians were liable, were few, compared with those which prevail in civilized society.

The *employments* of the men were principally, *hunting, fishing, and war*. The women dressed the food; took charge of the domestic concerns; tilled their narrow and scanty fields; and performed almost all the drudgery connected with their household affairs.

The *amusements* of the men were principally leaping, shooting at marks, dancing, gaming, and hunting, in all of which they made the most violent exertions. Their dances were usually performed round a large fire. In their war dances they sung, or recited the feats which they or their ancestors had achieved; represented the manner in which they were performed, and wrought themselves up to an inexpressible degree of martial enthusiasm. The females occasionally joined in some of these sports, but had none peculiar to themselves.

Their *dress* was various. In summer, they wore little besides a covering about the waist; but in winter, they clothed themselves in the skins of wild beasts. They were exceedingly fond of ornaments. On days of show and festivity, their sachems wore mantles of deer-skin, embroidered with white beads, or copper, or they were painted with various devices. Hideousness was the object aimed at in painting themselves. A chain of fish-bones about the neck, or the skin of a wildcat, was a sign of royalty.

For *habitations* the Indians had *wickwags*, or wigwags as pronounced by the English. These originally consisted of a strong pole erected in the centre, around which at the distance, of ten or twelve feet, other poles were driven obliquely into the ground, and fastened to the centre pole at the top. Their coverings were of mats, or barks of trees, so well adjusted as to render them dry and comfortable.

Their *domestic utensils* extended not beyond a hatchet of stone, a few shells and sharp stones, which they used for knives: stone mortars for pounding corn, and some mats and skins upon which they slept. They sat, and ate, and lodged on the ground. With shells and stones they scalped their enemies, dressed their

game, cut their hair, &c. They made nets of thread, twisted from the bark of Indian hemp, or of the sinews of the moose and deer. For fish-hooks they used bones which were bent.

Their food was of the coarsest and simplest kind—the flesh, and even the entrails of all kinds of wild beasts and birds; and in their proper season, green corn, beans, peas, &c. &c. which they cultivated, and other fruits which the country spontaneously produced. Flesh and fish they roasted on a stick, or broiled on the fire. In some instances they boiled their meat and corn by putting hot stones in water. Corn they parched, especially in the winter, and upon this they lived in the absence of other food.

The money of the Indians called *wampum*, consisted of small beads wrought from shells and strung on belts, and in chains. The *wampum* of the New-England Indians was black, blue, and white. That of the Six Nations was of a purple colour; Six of the white beads, and three of the black, or blue, became of the value of a penny. A belt of *wampum* was given as a token of friendship, or as a seal or confirmation of a treaty.

There was little among them that could be called *society*. Except when roused by some strong excitement, the men were generally indolent, taciturn, and unsocial. The women were too degraded and oppressed to think of much besides their toils. Removing too, as the seasons changed, or as the game grew scarce, or as danger from a stronger tribe threatened, there was little opportunity for forming those local attachments, and those social ties, which spring from a long residence in a particular spot.

Their language, also, though energetic, was too barren to serve the purposes of familiar conversation. In order to be understood and felt, it required the aid of strong and animated gesticulation, which could take place only when great occasions excited them. It seems, therefore, that they drew no considerable part of their enjoyments from intercourse with one another. Female beauty had little power over the men; and all other pleasures gave way to the strong impulses of public festivity, or burning captives, or seeking murderous revenge, or the chase, or war, or glory.

War was the favourite employment of the savages of North America. It roused them from the lethargy into which they fell, when they ceased from the chase, and furnished them an opportunity to distinguish themselves—to achieve deeds of glory, and taste the sweets of revenge. Their weapons were bows and arrows, headed with flint or other hard stones, which they discharged with great precision and force. The southern Indians used targets made of bark; the Mohawks clothed them-

selves with skins, as a defence against the arrows of their enemies.

When they fought in the open field, they rushed to the attack with incredible fury, and, at the same time uttered their appalling war whoop. Those whom they had taken captive they often tortured with every variety of cruelty, and to their dying agonies added every species of insult. If peace was concluded on, the chiefs of the hostile tribes ratified the treaty by smoking in succession the same pipe, called the *calumet*, or pipe of peace.

The government of the Indians in general was an absolute monarchy; though it differed in different tribes. The will of the sachem was law. In matters of moment, he consulted, however, his counsellors; but his decisions were final. War and peace among some tribes, seem to have been determined on in a council formed of old men, distinguished by their exploits. When in council they spoke at pleasure, and always listened to the speaker with profound and respectful silence.

“When propositions for war or peace were made, or treaties proposed to them, by the colonial governors, they met the ambassadors in council, and at the end of each paragraph, or proposition, the principal sachem delivered a short stick to one of his council, intimating that it was his peculiar duty to remember that paragraph. This was repeated till every proposal was finished; they then retired to deliberate among themselves. After their deliberations were ended, the sachem, or some counsellors to whom he had delegated this office, replied to every paragraph in its turn, with an exactness scarcely exceeded in the written correspondence of civilized powers. Each man actually remembered what was committed to him, and with his assistance the person who replied remembered the whole.”

The religious notions of the natives consisted of traditions, mingled with many superstitions. Like the ancient Greeks, Romans, Persians, Hindoos, &c. they believed in the existence of two gods, the one good, who was the superior, and whom they styled the Great, or Good Spirit; the other evil. They worshipped both; and of both formed images of stone, to which they paid religious homage. Besides these, they worshipped various other deities—such as fire, water, thunder—any thing which they conceived to be superior to themselves, and capable of doing them injury. The manner of worship was to sing and dance round large fires. Besides dancing, they offered prayers and sometimes sweet scented powder. In Virginia, the Indians offered blood, deer's suet, and tobacco. Of the creation and the deluge they had distinct traditions.

Marriage among them was generally a temporary contract. The men choose their wives agreeable to fancy, and put them away at pleasure. Marriage was celebrated, however, with some ceremony, and in many instances was observed with fidelity: not unfrequently it was as lasting as life. Polygamy was common among them.

Their *treatment of females* was cruel and oppressive. They were considered by the men as slaves, and treated as such. Those forms of decorum between the sexes, which lay the foundation for the respectful and gallant courtesy, with which women are treated in civilized society, were unknown among them. Of course, females were not only required to perform severe labour, but often felt the full weight of the passions and caprices of the men.

The *rites of burial* among the Indians, varied but little throughout the continent. They generally dug holes in the ground, with sharpened stakes. In the bottom of the grave were laid sticks, upon which the corpse, wrapped in skins and mats, was deposited. The arms, utensils, paints, and ornaments of the deceased were buried with him, and a mound of earth raised over his grave. Among some tribes in New-England, and among the Five Nations, the dead were buried in a sitting posture, with their faces towards the east. During the burial they uttered the most lamentable cries, and continued their mourning for several days.

The *origin of the Indians*, inhabiting the country, on the arrival of the English colonists, is involved in much obscurity, and several different answers have been given by learned men to the inquiry, whence did they come to America? The opinion best supported is, that they originated in Asia, and that at some former period, not now to be ascertained, they emigrated from that country to America, over which, in succeeding years, their descendants spread. This opinion is rendered the more probable by the fact, that the figure, complexion, dress, manners, customs, &c. &c. of the nations of both continents are strikingly similar. That they *might* have emigrated from the eastern continent is evident, since the distance between the East Cape of Asia, and Cape Prince of Wales in America, across the straits of Bhering, is only about forty miles, a much shorter distance than savages frequently sail in their canoes. Besides this, the straight is sometimes frozen over.

Reflections.

VIII. We shall find it pleasant and profitable, occasionally to pause in our history, and consider what instruction may be drawn from the portion of it that has been perused.

In the story of Columbus, we are introduced to a man of genius, energy, and enterprise. We see him forming a new, and in that age, a mighty project; and having matured his plan, we see him set himself vigorously about its execution. For a time, he is either treated as a visionary, or baffled by opposition. But, neither discouraged nor dejected, he steadily pursues his purpose, surmounts every obstacle, and at length spreads his sails upon the unknown waters of the Atlantic. A kind Providence auspiciously guides his way, and crowns his enterprise with the unexpected discovery of a new world.

While we admire the lofty qualities of Columbus, and look with wonder at the consequences which have resulted from his discovery, let us emulate his decision, energy, and perseverance. Many are the occasions on which it will be important to summon these to our aid; and by their means, many useful objects may be accomplished, which without them, would be unattained.

But, while we thus press forward in the career of usefulness—while we aim to accomplish for our fellow men all the amount of good in our power, let us moderate our expectations of reward here, by the consideration that Columbus died the victim of ingratitude and disappointment.

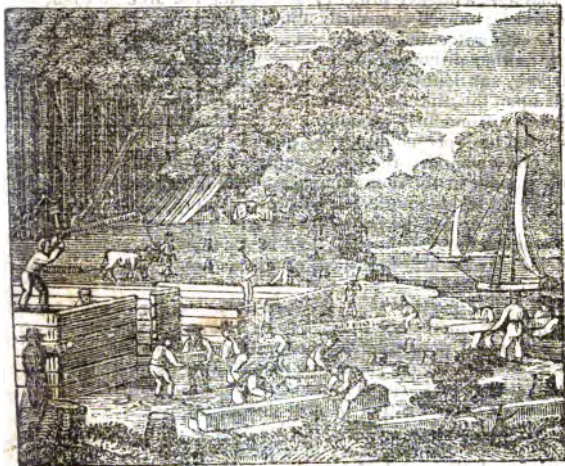
Another consideration of still deeper interest, is suggested by the story of Columbus. In his first voyage, he contemplated chiefly the discovery of a passage to India. We who live to mark the wonderful events which have flowed from his discovery, within the short space of three centuries, cannot but advert with awe to HIM, who attaches to the actions of a single individual, a train of consequences so stupendous and unexpected. How lightly soever, then, we may think of our conduct, let us remember that the invisible hand of Providence may be connecting with our smallest actions the most momentous results, to ourselves and others.

With respect to Americus Vesputius, it may be observed, that although he deprived Columbus of the merited honour of giving his name to the new world, and gained this distinction for himself—still his name will ever remain stigmatized as having appropriated that to himself, which fairly belonged to another.

UNITED STATES.

Period II.

DISTINGUISHED FOR SETTLEMENTS.



Settlement at Jamestown.

Extending from the first permanent English settlement at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607, to the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689.

Section I. Prior to the year 1607, a period of one hundred and fifteen years from the discovery of San Salvador, by Columbus, attempts had been made to effect settlements in various parts of North America; but no one proved successful, until the settlement at Jamestown.

In 1606, King James I. of England, granted letters

patent,—an exclusive right, or privilege,—to two companies, called the London and Plymouth Companies: by which they were authorized to possess the lands, in America, lying between the 34th and 45th degrees of north latitude; the southern part, called South Virginia, to the London; and the northern, called North Virginia, to the Plymouth Company.

Under this patent, the London Company sent Capt. Christopher Newport to Virginia, Dec. 20th, 1606, with a colony of one hundred and five persons, to commence a settlement on the island Roanoke,—now in North Carolina.—After a tedious voyage of four months, by the circuitous route of the West Indies, he entered the Chesapeake Bay, having been driven north of the place of his destination.

Here it was concluded to land; and, proceeding up a river, called by the Indians Powhatan, but, by the colony, James River, on a beautiful peninsula, in May, 1607, they began the first permanent settlement in North America, and called it *Jamestown*.

The government of this Colony was formed in England, by the London Company. It consisted of a council of seven persons, appointed by the Company, with a president chosen by the council, from their number, who had two votes. All matters of moment were examined by this council, and determined by a majority. Capt. Newport brought over the names of this council, carefully sealed in a box, which was opened after their arrival.

Among the most enterprising and useful members of this colony and one of its magistrates, was Capt. John Smith.

In an attempt to ascertain the source of Chickahominy river, he ascended in a barge as far as the stream was uninterrupted. Designing to proceed still further, he left the barge in the keeping of the crew, with strict injunctions on no account to leave her, and with two Englishmen, and two Indians left the party. But no sooner was he out of view, than the crew, impatient of restraint, repaired on board the barge, and proceeding some distance down the stream, landed at a place where a body of Indians lay in ambush, by whom they were seized.

By means of the crew, the route of Smith was ascertained.

and a party of Indians were immediately despatched to take him. On coming up with him, they fired, killed the Englishmen, and wounded himself. With great presence of mind, he now tied his Indian guide to his left arm, as a shield from the enemies' arrows, while with his musket he despatched three of the most forward of the assailants.

In this manner he continued to retreat towards his canoe, while the Indians, struck with admiration of his bravery, followed with respectful caution. Unfortunately coming to a sunken spot filled with mire, while engrossed with eyeing his pursuers, he sunk so deep as to be unable to extricate himself, and was forced to surrender.

Fruitful in expedients, to avert immediate death, he presented an ivory compass to the chief, whose attention was arrested by the vibrations of the needle. Taking advantage of the impression which he had thus made, partly by signs, and partly by language, he excited their wonder still more by telling them of its singular powers.

Their wonder however seemed soon to abate, and their attention returned to their prisoner. He was now bound, and tied to a tree, and the savages were preparing to direct their arrows at his breast. At this instant the chief, holding up the compass, they laid down their arms, and led him in triumph to Powhattan their king.

Powhattan and his council doomed him to death, as a man whose courage and genius were peculiarly dangerous to the Indians. Preparations were accordingly made, and when the time arrived, Smith was led out to execution. His head was laid upon a stone, and a club presented to Powhattan, who himself claimed the honour of becoming the executioner. The savages in silence were circling round, and the giant arm of Powhatan had already raised the club to strike the fatal blow, when to his astonishment the young and beautiful Pocahontas, his daughter, with a shriek of terror, rushed from the throng, and threw herself upon the body of Smith. At the same time she cast an imploring look towards her furious but astonished father, and in all the eloquence of mute, but impassioned sorrow, besought his life.

The remainder of the scene was honourable to Powhatan. The club of the chief was still uplifted, but a father's pity had touched his heart, and the eye that had at first kindled with wrath was now fast losing its fierceness. He looked round as if to collect his fortitude, or perhaps to find an excuse for his weakness, in the pity of the attendants. A similar sympathy, which the weeping Pocahontas felt, but durst not utter, "My father let the prisoner live." Powhatan raised his daugh-

ter, and the captive, scarcely yet assured of safety, from the earth.

Shortly after Powhatan dismissed Capt. Smith with assurances of friendship, and the next morning, accompanied with a guard of twelve men, he arrived safely at Jamestown, after a captivity of seven weeks.

In 1609, circumstances having arisen to interrupt the friendly dispositions of Powhatan towards the colony, he plotted their entire destruction. His design was to attack them unapprised, and to cut them off at a blow.

In a dark and stormy night, the heroic Pocahontas hastened alone to Jamestown, and disclosed the inhuman plot of her father. The colony were thus put on their guard, and their ruin averted.

It may be interesting to add concerning Pocahontas, that some time after this she was married to an English gentleman, by the name of Rolfe, with whom she visited England. She embraced the Christian religion, and was baptized by the name of Rebecca. She left one son, who had several daughters, the descendants of whom inherited her lands in Virginia, and are among the most respectable families in that State.

II. In the early part of this year, 1609, the London Company surrendered their rights to the king, and obtained a new charter. Under this charter Thomas West, Lord Delaware, was appointed governor for life.

Towards the close of the year, the colony at Jamestown, amounting to five hundred inhabitants, was reduced in six months, by pestilence, to sixty. Disheartened by this fearful calamity, they resolved to leave the country, and return to England. They therefore embarked on board some vessels, just arrived from Bermuda; but meeting Lord Delaware, the new governor, with one hundred and eighty men and provisions, they returned with them to their settlement, and the affairs of the colony again began to prosper.

III. In 1614, some Dutch adventurers built a fort at Albany, on Hudson's river. This commenced the settlement, and laid the foundation of that city. The next year a fort was built, and a settlement begun by the Dutch, on the Island of Manhattan, now New-York.

Hudson's river derived its name from Henry Hudson, who entered, and gave name to it, 1608. At this time, or according to others, in 1609, he ascended the river to the place where Albany now stands. Hudson was in the service of the Dutch East India Company, or sold his claims to them. The Dutch

accordingly, took possession of the country, naming it New Netherlands. New-York, they called New-Amsterdam. These names they retained, till the conquest of the country, by the English, in 1664.

IV. In 1614, Capt. John Smith sailed from England, with two ships, to America. He ranged the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod. On his return to England, he presented a Map of the country to Prince Charles, who named it NEW-ENGLAND.

Six years from this, Dec. 22, 1620, a colony, commonly known by the name of *Puritans*, landed at Plymouth in Massachusetts, and soon after began the *first permanent English settlement in New-England*. These colonists were originally from England; but were driven thence by the arm of persecution, for urging a more thorough reformation in the Church of England.

They fled from England, first to Amsterdam, in Holland, in 1607, with their pastor, the Rev. Mr. Robinson. From Amsterdam, they soon after removed to Leyde, where they continued, until they embarked for America.

Among the motives which influenced them to remove to America, the prospect of enjoying "a purer worship and a greater liberty of conscience," was the principal. To secure these objects, they were willing to become exiles from a civilized country, and encounter the dangers and privations which might meet them in a wilderness.

Having resolved on a removal to America, they concluded to settle on Hudson's river, and to live in a distinct body, under the protection of the London, or South Virginia Company.

Having with some difficulty obtained a grant from the Virginia Company, they speedily prepared for the voyage; departed from Leyden in July, touched at South-Hampton, England, whence they sailed in August; but on account of a leak in one of their ships, they were twice compelled to put back.

On the sixth of September following, they finally bid adieu to their country, and on the ninth of November, discovered Cape Cod. It is said, that the master of the vessel was a Dutchman, and was bribed in Holland, to carry them to the north of the Hudson, that they might not disturb the Dutch there; who, though compelled in 1614, by Capt. Argal from Jamestown, to acknowledge the Sovereignty of King James, and the governor, had not long after thrown off the British yoke.

They soon perceived themselves to be beyond the limits of the company's patent, from which they had derived their title. But, winter being at hand, and fearing to encounter the dangers of the sea, on an unknown coast, they determined to seek a place of settlement where they were.

Before landing, "having devoutly given thanks to God for their safe arrival, they formed themselves into a body politic," forty-one signing a solemn contract, according to the provisions of which they were to be governed. Mr. John Carver was elected governour for one year.

Parties were now despatched to fix upon a spot for their settlement. Several days were employed for this purpose, during which, a number of Indians were seen, who fled on being approached. They also discovered baskets of corn hid in the sand, which served for seed the ensuing spring.

At length, a suitable spot was selected for a settlement, and a house immediately erected. The colony was divided into nineteen families, each of which built its own cottage. On Lord's day, Dec. 31, they attended public worship, for the first time on shore, and named the place *Plymouth*.

V. The same month, (Nov.) that the Puritans arrived on the coast from England, king James I. issued a patent to the duke of Lenox, Ferdinando Gorges, and others, styling them, "The Council of Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for planting and governing New-England in America." This patent granted to them the territory between the 40th and 48th degrees of north latitude, and was the foundation of all the subsequent patents which divided the country.

VI. In March, 1621, the colony of Plymouth, through Governour Carver, entered into a league of friendship, commerce, and mutual defence with Masassoit, the great sachem of the neighbouring Indians. This treaty, which was strictly observed until the breaking out of Philip's war, (a period of more than fifty years,) gave general peace to the colony, and laid the foundation for their intimate and amicable correspondence with the neighbouring Indian tribes.

The person, chiefly instrumental in bringing this event to pass was Samoset, a sagamore of the country, laying at the distance of about five days journey. He was the first visitant of the colony at Plymouth, and greatly surprised the inhabitants.

by calling out as he entered their village, "Welcome Englishmen! Welcome Englishmen!" He had conversed with the English fishermen who had come to the eastern coast, and had learned some of the language. He informed the colony that the place where they were settled, was called by the Indians *Paturet*; that five years before a plague had swept off all the natives from the place, so that there was neither man, woman, nor child remaining. Providence had thus singularly prepared the way for the colonies to take possession of the land, without molesting a single owner.

Samoset, having been treated with hospitality by these strangers, was disposed to cultivate a further acquaintance with them; and on his third visit was accompanied by Squanto, a native of the country, who had been carried away in 1614, by one Hunt, and sold into Spain, but had been taken to London, whence he had returned to America.

They informed the English that Masassoit, the greatest sachem of the neighbouring Indians, was near with a guard of sixty men. Mutual distrust prevented for some time any advances from either side. But Squanto, who was at length sent to Masassoit, returned, saying that the sachem wished the English to send some one to confer with him. Mr. Edward Winslow was accordingly sent, bearing suitable presents to the chief. These proving acceptable, Masassoit left Mr. Winslow in the custody of his men as a hostage, and ventured to the English, by whom he was hospitably entertained, and with whom he concluded the treaty already noticed.

VII. In 1619, a governor general of the Virginia Colony arrived from England, with instructions to convoke a colonial legislature. To this assembly eleven corporations or towns, sent representatives, who sat with the governor and council, appointed by the Company. This was the first legislature to which the American people sent representatives.

In 1621, the London Company established a constitution and form of government for the colony. The powers of this government were vested in a governor and two councils. One of these was called the council of state, to advise and assist the governor. This council was to be appointed and removed by the company. The other was called the general assembly, consisting of the council of state and two burgesses, or representatives, deputed from each town, hundred, or plantation. This assembly met

annually, and were entrusted with the business of framing laws for the colony, the governour having a negative upon their proceedings. No laws were valid until ratified by a court of the company in England.

In 1622, the Virginia Colony, which for some time had enjoyed great prosperity, and had received frequent accessions, experienced a stroke which nearly proved fatal. The successor of Powhatan, who was of a proud, revengeful spirit, and extremely hostile to the colony, concerted a plan to cut them off at a blow. On the 22d of March, it was so far put in execution, that three hundred and forty-seven of the colony, men, women, and children, were butchered almost in the same instant.

A war of extermination soon succeeded, which not long after was followed by a famine. The losses of the colony, however, which these calamities had brought upon them, were soon in a measure repaired, by the arrival of new adventurers.

VIII. While the Virginians were mourning their losses, the Plymouth colony began to experience the distresses of famine. By the time their planting was finished in 1623, their provisions were so far exhausted, that they had neither bread nor corn for three or four months. A drought continued from May, until some time in July. Under these afflictions, however, they appointed a day of fasting and prayer, to humble themselves, and to seek unto God. Notwithstanding their many fears, a plentiful harvest followed, which was suitably noticed by a day of thanksgiving and praise.

IX. This year, 1623, a number of persons from England arrived in the river Piscataqua, and began two settlements; one at the mouth, at a place called Little Harbour, the other at a place now called Dover.—These were the first settlements in NEW HAMPSHIRE.

X. In 1624, the London Company, which had settled Virginia, was dissolved by an act of king James I. under pretext of the calamities which had befallen the colony, and the dissensions which had agitated the company.

Their charter was taken away, and the government of the colony assumed by the crown. The king himself appointed a governour, in whom, with twelve counselors, the powers of government were vested.

The London Company, thus dissolved, consisted of gentlemen of noble and disinterested views, who had expended more than one hundred thousand pounds of their fortunes, in this first attempt to plant an English colony in America; and more than nine thousand persons had been sent from the mother country to people this new settlement. At the time of the dissolution of the company scarcely two thousand persons survived.

Charles I. succeeding James I. in 1625, brought the Virginia Colony more immediately under the direction of the crown. Under this administration, the colony suffered much for many years, from the severe and arbitrary restraints imposed upon it by the king, through the governour and council.

XI. It has been stated, that the lands, upon which the Plymouth colony settled, were granted by the crown to "the Council of Plymouth," in England, in November, 1620. This was the same month that the Puritans had arrived in the country. Being apprized of this grant, the colony, in 1626, began to take measures to purchase these lands. The negotiations for this purpose ended the next year in a patent, which the company granted them for one thousand eight hundred pounds sterling, with ample powers of government.

The government of the colony was at first formed and conducted according to a voluntary compact, entered into before landing. Till the year 1624, it consisted of a governour and one assistant only. From this period five were annually chosen, the governour having a double vote. The number of assistants was afterwards increased to seven.—The laws of the colony were enacted, and the affairs of government conducted, by these officers for near twenty years. In 1639, the towns in this colony, for the first time, sent deputies. The colony continued distinct near seventy years, until 1691, when, by charter of William and Mary, it was united to the colony of Massachusetts, and the Province of Maine.

XII. In 1628, the foundation was laid for another co-

lony, in New-England, by the name of the colony of **MASSACHUSETTS BAY**.

The patent of this colony was granted by the Council of Plymouth, or New-England, to Sir Henry Roswell and others; and conveyed to them the territory lying between three miles north of the Merrimack, and three miles south of Charles River.

Sir Henry Roswell and his associates, however, soon sold the patent to Sir Richard Saltonstall, John Endicott, and others in England, who were projecting a settlement in New-England, for the purposes of greater religious freedom.

The same year, John Endicott was sent over, and began the settlement of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, at *Salem*, then called by the Indians *Naumkeak*. As the patent granted to this colony conveyed no powers of government, King Charles, in 1629, granted these powers by charter. Six ships, furnished by the company, brought over four hundred persons, men, women, and children, three hundred of whom settled at Salem, the remainder at Charlestown.

During the succeeding summer, 1630, John Winthrop, who had been appointed governour, and Thomas Dudley, deputy governour, with one thousand five hundred people, arrived at Charlestown; but owing to a mortal sickness, which soon after prevailed in that settlement, the governour and several of the planters removed to Shawmut, which they named Boston.

Governour Winthrop, and his associates, came over under an arrangement to transfer the government of this colony, from London to New-England, and to place it in the hands of officers to be elected by the freemen. This was carried into effect, and the freemen continued annually to elect their officers of government.

The colony soon experienced the distresses of mortal sickness and wasting famine. There was scarcely a family, in which there had not been a death before spring, and many of the people were obliged to subsist on clams, muscles, acorns, and nuts. Friday, February 6, was appointed as a day of fasting; but the day before, a ship arriving laden with provisions, the governour, on the joyful occasion, appointed a day of thanksgiving throughout the plantations.

XIII. In 1692, Charles I. granted a patent to lord Bat-

timore, conveying to him a tract of country on the Chesapeake Bay, which, in honour of Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry the Great of France, he named MARYLAND.

The next year, 1633, Lord Baltimore appointed his brother, Leonard Calvert, governour of the province, who, with about two hundred planters, chiefly Roman Catholics, began a settlement, in 1634, near the mouth of the Potomac, on the northern side.

Emigrants soon flocked to this province from England and the other colonies, on account of the greater religious freedom enjoyed in it.

By the patent, the proprietor, with the consent of the freemen, or their delegates, was authorized to make all necessary laws, not opposed to the laws of England; the king did not reserve a right to interfere in the government of the province. This was the original government of the colony of Maryland, which, however, afterwards underwent various modifications.

XIV. In 1633, the first house was erected in CONNECTICUT. This was a trading house at Windsor, the materials of which some Plymouth adventurers sent in a vessel up Connecticut river.

On their arrival in the river, they found some Dutch, from New Amsterdam, who had previously heard of the intended settlement at Windsor, occupying a fort, which they had erected, where Hartford now stands. On the approach of the Plymouth adventurers, the Dutch garrison ordered them to stop; but the commander gallantly disregarded the order, and proceeded to Windsor.

Two years from this, 1635, about sixty men, women, and children, from Newtown and Watertown, in Massachusetts, commenced their journey through the wilderness to Connecticut river. They settled at Windsor, Wethersfield, and Hartford.

The same year, John Winthrop, son of the governour of Massachusetts, arrived from England, with a commission, as governour of Connecticut, under lord Say and Seal, and lord Brook, to whom the council of Plymouth had given, in March, 1631, a patent of the territory.

Soon after Winthrop's arrival at Boston, he despatched a bark of thirty tons with twenty men, to take possession of Con-

necticut river, and to build a fort at its mouth. This was accordingly erected, and called Saybrook fort. A few days after their arrival, a Dutch vessel, from New Netherlands, appeared, to take possession of the river; but, as the English had already mounted two cannon, their landing was prevented.

The next June, 1636, the Rev. Messrs. Hooker and Stone, with a number of settlers, from Dorchester and Watertown, removed to Connecticut. With no guide but a compass, they made their way, one hundred miles over mountains, through swamps and rivers. Their journey, which was on foot, lasted a fortnight, during which they lived upon the milk of their cows. They drove one hundred and sixty cattle.

XV. This year, 1636, Roger Williams, having been banished from the colony of Massachusetts in 1634, removed with his family to Moosawsic, and began a plantation, which he called *Providence*. From this we date the settlement of RHODE-ISLAND.

Williams was a minister of Salem; on account of promulgating opinions, civil as well as religious, which were contrary to those prevalent at that day in the colonies, though some of these are now universally admitted to be just, he was summoned, in 1636, to appear before the general court, and the ministers of the colony. Mr. Hooker was appointed to dispute with him; but being unable to induce him to renounce his opinions, he was sentenced to depart out of the jurisdiction.

In 1638, William Coddington, who has sometimes been called the father of Rhode Island, with eighteen others removed from Massachusetts, and having purchased of the Indians the Island Aquitneck, began a settlement on the northern part of it. Others followed the next summer, and commenced another settlement on the southwestern side—dividing the Island into two townships, Portsmouth and Newport. They formed themselves into a body politic, and elected Mr. Coddington chief magistrate.

In 1640, the inhabitants of Providence agreed upon a form of government. Rhode Island, so called from a fancied resemblance to the ancient island of Rhodes, soon began to be extensively settled, both on account of its natural fertility, and also on account of the religious freedom allowed to all denominations.

In 1644, Roger Williams visited England, as agent of the settlers, and obtained of the earl of Warwick, one of the Plymouth company, a free charter of incorporation for Providence and Rhode Island Plantations.

In 1663, a royal charter was granted to them, by Charles II.

This charter constituted an assembly, consisting of a governour, deputy governour, and ten assistants, with the representatives from the several towns, all to be chosen by the freemen.

XVI. The year 1637 is remarkable, in the history of Connecticut, for the war with the Pequots—a tribe of Indians, whose principal settlement was on a hill in the present town of Groton.

Prior to this time, the Pequots had frequently annoyed the infant colony, and in several instances had killed some of its inhabitants. In March of this year, the commander of Saybrook fort, with twelve men, was attacked by them, and three of his party killed. In April, another portion of this tribe assaulted the people of Wethersfield, as they were going to their fields to labour, and killed six men and three women. Two girls were taken captive by them, and twenty cows were killed.

In this perilous state of the colony, a court was summoned at Hartford, May 1. After mature deliberation, it was determined that war should be commenced against the Pequots.

Ninety men, nearly half the fencible men of the colony, were ordered to be raised—forty-two from Hartford—thirty from Windsor—and eighteen from Wethersfield.

With these troops, together with seventy river and Mohegan Indians, Capt. Mason, to whom the command of the expedition was given, dropped down the river Connecticut, to Saybrook. Here a plan of operations was formed. On the twenty-sixth of May, about the dawn of day, capt. Mason surprised Mystic, one of the principal forts of the enemy, in the present town of Stonington. On their near approach to the fort, a dog barked, and an Indian who now discovered them, cried out, "O wanux, O wanux!" Englishmen, Englishmen

The troops instantly pressed forward and fired. The destruction of the enemy soon became terrible, but they rallied at length, and made a manly resistance. After a severe and protracted conflict, capt. Mason and his troops being nearly exhausted, and victory still doubtful, he cried out to his men, *we must burn them!*

At the same instant, seizing a firebrand, he applied it to a wigwam. The flames spread rapidly, on every side; and as the sun rose upon the scene, it showed the work of destruction to be complete. Seventy wigwams were in ruins, and between five and six hundred Indians lay bleeding on the ground, or smouldering in the ashes.

But though the victory was complete, the troops were now in great distress. Besides two killed, sixteen of their number were wounded. Their surgeons, medicines, and provisions,

were on board some vessels, on their way to Pequot harbour, now New-London. While consulting what should be done in this emergency, how great was their joy to descry their vessels standing directly towards the harbour, under a prosperous wind!

Soon after, a detachment of nearly two hundred men, from Massachusetts and Plymouth, arrived to assist Connecticut, in prosecuting the war.

Sassacus, the great Sachem of the Pequots, and his warriors, were so appalled at the destruction of Mystic, that they fled towards Hudson's river. The troops pursued them as far as a great swamp in Fairfield, where another action took place, in which the Indians were entirely vanquished.

This was followed by a treaty with the remaining Pequots, about two hundred in number, agreeably to which they were divided among the Narragansets and Moheagans.

Thus terminated a conflict which for a time was eminently distressing to the colonies. This event of peace was celebrated throughout New-England, by a day of thanksgiving and praise.

XVII. The expedition against the Pequots made the English acquainted with Quinnapiak or *New-Haven*; and the next year, 1638, led to the settlement of that town. This, and the adjoining towns, soon after settled, went by the name of the COLONY OF NEW-HAVEN.

Among the founders of this colony was Mr. John Davenport, a celebrated minister of London, Theophilus Eaton, who had been governour of the East India Company, and Edward Hopkins, a merchant of London. The unmolested enjoyment of civil and religious liberty was the object of their emigration, as it was of most of the emigrants to this country.

Having purchased the land of Monanguin, sachem of the country, whom they paid to his full satisfaction, on the 18th of April they kept their first Sabbath in the place, under a large oak tree, where Mr. Davenport preached to them.

XVIII. The following year, January 14, 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield, finding themselves without the limits of the Massachusetts patent, met, and formed themselves into a distinct commonwealth, and adopted a constitution.

This constitution, which has been much admired, and which for more than a century and a half underwent little alteration, ordained that there should be annually two general assemblies, one in April, the other in September. In April the officers of government were to be elected by the freemen, and to consist

of governour, deputy governour, and five or six assistants. The towns were to send deputies to the general assemblies. Under this constitution, the first governour was John Haynes, and Roger Ludlow the first deputy governour.

XIX. The example of the colony of Connecticut, in forming a constitution, was followed the next June, by the colony of New-Haven. Both constitutions were essentially alike. Theophilus Eaton was the governour of the colony.

XX. This same year, 1639, Sir Ferdinando Gorges obtained of the crown a charter of all the land from Piscataqua to Sagadahoc, calling the territory the PROVINCE OF MAINE. He formed a system of government for the province, but it did not flourish. In 1651, or 1652, it was taken under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, by request of the people of Maine.

The Plymouth colonists had obtained a patent for land lying on the Kennebeck river in 1628, and had erected a house there for trade. Scattered settlements were made in the territory some years afterward; but the history of their progress is obscure.

XXI. The next event of importance in our history is the union of the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New-Haven, by the name of THE UNITED COLONIES OF NEW-ENGLAND. The articles of this confederation, which had been agitated for three years, were signed, May 19th, 1643.

To this union the colonies were strongly urged by a sense of common danger from the Indians, (a general combination of whom was expected,) and by the claims and encroachments of the Dutch, at Manhattan, New-York.

By these articles of union, each colony retained its distinct and separate government.—No two colonies might be united into one, nor any colony be received into the confederacy, without the consent of the whole. Each colony was to elect two Commissioners, who should meet annually, and at other times, if necessary, and should determine “all affairs of war and peace, of leagues, aids, charges, and numbers of men for war,” &c. Upon notice that any colony was invaded, the rest were immediately to despatch assistance.

This union subsisted more than forty years, until the charters of the colonies were either taken away, or suspended by James II. and his commissioners.

In 1648, Rhode-Island petitioned to be admitted to this confederacy but was denied, unless she would be incorporated with Plymouth, and lose her separate existence.—This she refused, and was consequently excluded.

The effects of this union on the New-England colonies were in a high degree salutary. On the completion of it, several Indian sachems, among whom were the chiefs of the Narraganset and Moheagan tribes, came in, and submitted to the English government. The colonies also became formidable, by means of it, to the Dutch. This union was also made subservient to the civil and religious improvement of the Indians.

Prior to this period, Mr. Mayhew and the devoted Elliot had made considerable progress towards civilizing the Indians, and converting them to Christianity. They had learned the Indian language, and had preached to the Indians in their own tongue.

Upon a report in England of what these men had done, a society was formed for propagating the Gospel among the Indians, which sent over books, money, &c. to be distributed by the Commissioners of the United Colonies.

The Indians at first made great opposition to Christianity; and such was their aversion to it, that had they not been overawed by the United Colonies, it is probable they would have put to death those among them who embraced it.—Such, however, were the ardour, energy, and ability of Messrs. Mayhew and Elliot, aided by the countenance and support of government, and blessed by Providence, that in 1660, there were ten towns of converted Indians in Massachusetts. In 1695, there were not less than three thousand adult Indian converts, in the islands of Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket.

XXII. The colony of Connecticut, having petitioned king Charles II. in 1662, through governour Winthrop, for a charter of incorporation, his majesty granted their request, and issued his letters patent, April 2d, constituting them a body corporate and politick, by the name of *The Governour and Company of the English Colony of Connecticut, in New-England, in America.*

The territory granted to lord Say and Seal, and lord Brook, in 1631, and confirmed by this charter to Connecticut, was bounded east by Narraganset river; south by Long-Island sound; north by Massachusetts; and extended west to the Pacifick Ocean.

The charter of Connecticut ordained that there should be a

governour, deputy governour, and twelve assistants to be chosen annually. The charter instituted two general assemblies for each year, to consist of the above officers and deputies from the towns; the former to compose the upper, and the deputies the lower house. The government under the charter was essentially the same with that which the people had themselves adopted, in 1639, and continued to be the constitution of the colony and State of Connecticut until the year 1818.

This charter included the colony of New-Haven; but not being agreeable to that colony, it did not unite with Connecticut until two years after. The granting of a charter to Connecticut was followed the next year, 1663, by a similar grant to Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations, as already noticed.

XXIII. The settlement of the Dutch at Manhattan, in 1615, and their submission to the government of Virginia, which sent an expedition against them the same year, has already been mentioned. But the succeeding governour threw off the English yoke, and from that time they had remained independent of the English.—Belonging to a different nation, and having different interests, they availed themselves of every occasion to perplex and annoy the New-England colonies. They even laid claim to a considerable part of Connecticut.

At length, king Charles II. sensible of the evil consequences of having a Dutch colony in the heart of his American dominions, determined to dispossess them. Accordingly, in the year 1664, he made a grant of the whole country, including in it the several colonies of New-York, New-Jersey, and Delaware, to his brother, the duke of York and Albany.

An expedition was soon fitted out against the Dutch, under command of Col. Richard Nichols, who shortly after appeared at Manhattan, and demanded a surrender. To this demand, the Dutch governour, Stuyvesant, yielded, Aug. 27, being unprepared for defence.—Thus the whole country passed into the hands of the English. In honour of the duke, the two principal Dutch settlements were now named New-York and Albany.

XXIV. A short time previous to the surrender of the

Dutch, the duke of York conveyed to lord Berkley, and Sir George Carteret, the territory of New-Jersey. This name was given it in compliment to Carteret, who had been governour of the Isle of Jersey in the English Channel. Soon after the grant, but before it was known, three persons from Long-Island purchased of the natives a tract which was called Elizabethtown grant, and a settlement was begun at Elizabethtown. In a few years emigrants from various parts of Europe settled Newark, Middletown, and other places.

The first settlement in New-Jersey was made three or four years after the settlement of Plymouth in New-England, by some Dutchmen and Danes. The inhabitants were considerably numerous at the time of the surrender of the province to the English government.

The next year, 1665, Philip Carteret, who had been appointed governour by the proprietors, arrived at Elizabethtown, which he made the seat of government. He administered the government according to a constitution, which the proprietors had formed.

This constitution ordained a free assembly, consisting of a governour, council, and representatives, the latter to be chosen by each town. The legislative power resided in the assembly—the executive in the governour and council.

XXV. DELAWARE was also included in the grant to the duke of York. At this time it was in the hands of the Dutch, but an expedition was sent against it under Sir Robert Carr, to whom it surrendered Oct. 1, 1664, soon after which, it was put under the authority of the English governour of New-York.

Delaware was first settled in 1627, by a number of Swedes and Fins, who at the instance of Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, emigrated to America. They landed at Cape Henlopen, which on account of its beauty, they called Paradise Point; the Delaware they named Swedeland Stream.

The Dutch at New Netherlands laid claim, however, to the territory, and mutual contests subsisted for a long time between them and the Swedes. After several times changing masters, the territory finally surrendered to the Dutch, who held possession of it, at the time of the English expedition against it under Carr, in 1664.

XXVI. After the reduction of New-York, Col. Richard Nichols, Sir Robert Carr, George Cartwright, and Samuel Maverick, Esqrs. entered upon the duties of a commission from king Charles, "to hear and determine complaints and appeals, in all causes, as well military as criminal and civil," within New-England, and to proceed in all things for settling the peace and security of the country.

The conduct of these commissioners was exceedingly arbitrary and offensive to the colonies. Under pretext of executing their commission, they received complaints against the colonies from the Indians; required persons, against the consent of the people, to be admitted to the privileges of freemen; to church membership, and full communion; heard and decided in causes which had already been determined by the established courts; and gave protection to criminals. After involving the colonies in great embarrassment and expense, they were at length recalled, and the country saved from impending ruin.

XXVII. In the year 1663, the tract of country, extending from the 36th degree of north latitude to the river St. Matheo, was erected into a province by the name of CAROLINA, so called in honour of Charles IX. king of France, under whose patronage the coast had been discovered in 1568.

This tract was conveyed, by charter of Charles II. King of England, at this time, to Lord Clarendon, and seven others, who were made absolute proprietors of the territory, and invested with ample powers to settle and govern it. Two years after, the charter was confirmed and enlarged, so as to embrace the whole territory, now divided into the two Carolinas, Georgia, and the Floridas.

As early as 1650, a settlement was begun in Albemarle county, by planters from Virginia, and emigrants from other places. This settlement was placed by the proprietors, under the superintendence of Sir William Berkeley, governor of Vir-

ginia, who was instructed to visit it, and to appoint a governour and council of six for it.

The attention of the proprietors was next turned to the country south of Cape Fear, which they erected into a county by the name of Clarendon. This county was settled in 1665, by emigrants from the Island of Barbadoes. Sir John Yeamans, who was from that island, was appointed governour, and a separate government granted, similar to that of Albemarle.

In 1669, another settlement was made still further south, at Port Royal, under the direction of William Sayle, who was appointed the first governour. The name of this county was Carteret. Thus three distinct governments were formed in Carolina.

In 1671, Gov. Sayle, dissatisfied with the situation of Port Royal, removed to the northward and took possession of a neck of land between Ashley and Cooper's river. Here was laid the foundation of a town called Charlestown. Nine years after, however, the inhabitants removed to "the Oyster Point," where Charleston, the present capital of South Carolina, was begun. The place which they left went by the name of "the Old Town."

In consequence of the unhealthiness of the climate, Governour Sayle died shortly after his removal to Old Charleston, upon which this colony was annexed to the government of that of Clarendon under governour Yeamans, and the three governments were reduced to two.

During the administration of governour Sayle, a constitution, prepared at the request of the proprietors, by the celebrated Mr. Locke, was attempted to be put in force.

By this constitution, a president of a palatine court, to consist of the proprietors, was to be chosen for life. An hereditary nobility was to be established, consisting of landgraves and caciques. A parliament, chosen once in two years, was to be held, consisting of the proprietors, of the nobility, and of representatives from each district. All were to meet in one apartment, and to have an equal voice. No business, however, could be proposed in parliament, until it had been debated in a grand council, to consist of the governour, nobility, and deputies of proprietors.

This constitution it was found impossible to reduce to practice. Great opposition was made to it; and in Albemarle an insurrection was occasioned by an attempt to enforce it. It was therefore at length abandoned, and the former proprietary government restored. This latter sort of government continued from 1669 to 1729, when the proprietors surrendered their title and interest to the King of England. The province was

now divided into North and South Carolina, and their governors and councils were appointed by the crown.

XXVIII. This year, 1675, began the memorable war in New-England, with the Indians, called *King Philip's war*; by which the peace of the colonies was greatly disturbed, and their existence for a time seriously endangered.

For several years previous to the opening of the war, the Indians had regarded the English with increasing jealousy. They saw them growing in numbers, and rapidly extending their settlements. At the same time their own hunting grounds were visibly narrowing, and their power and privileges sensibly decreasing. The prospect before them was humbling to the haughty descendants of the original lords of the soil.

The principal exciter of the Indians at this time against the English, was Philip, sachem of the Wampanoags, grandson and successor of Masassoit, who, fifty years before, had made a treaty with the colony of Plymouth. Philip's residence was at Mount Hope, Bristol, Rhode-Island.

The immediate cause of the war was the execution of three Indians by the English, whom Philip had excited to murder one Sausaman, an Indian missionary. Sausaman, being friendly to the English, had informed them that Philip, with several tribes, was plotting their destruction.

The execution of these Indians roused the anger of Philip, who immediately armed his men, and commenced hostilities. Their first attack was made June 24th, upon the people of Swanzev, in Plymouth colony, as they were returning home from public worship, on a day of humiliation and prayer, under the apprehension of the approaching war. Eight or nine persons were killed.

The country was immediately alarmed, and the troops of the colony flew to the defence of Swanzev. On the 28th, a company of horse and a company of foot, with one hundred and ten volunteers from Boston, joined the Plymouth forces at Swanzev. The next morning an attack was made upon some of Philip's men, who were pursued and five or six of them killed. This resolute conduct of the English made a deep impression on the enemy. Philip with his forces left Mount Hope the same night—marking his route, however, with the burning of houses, and the scalping of the defenceless inhabitants.

It being known that the Narragansets favoured the cause of Philip, he having sent his women and children to them for protection, the Massachusetts forces under Capt. Hutchinson proceeded forthwith into their country, either to renew a treaty

with them, or to give them battle. Fortunately, a treaty was concluded, and the troops returned.

On the 17th of July, news arrived that Philip, with his warriors, was in a swamp at Pocasset, now Tiverton. The Massachusetts and Plymouth forces immediately marched to that place, and the next day resolutely charged the enemy in their recesses. As the troops entered the swamp, the Indians continued to retire. The English in vain pursued, till the approach of night, when the commander ordered a retreat. Many of the English were killed, and the enemy seemed to take courage.

It being impossible to encounter the Indians with advantage in the swamps, it was determined to starve them out; but Philip apprehending their design, contrived to escape with his forces.

He now fled to the Nipmucks, a tribe in Worcester county, Massachusetts, whom he induced to assist him. This tribe had already commenced hostilities against the English; but, in the hope of reclaiming them, the governor and council sent Captains Wheeler and Hutchinson to treat with them. But the Indians, having intimation of their coming, lurked in ambush for them, fired upon them as they approached, killed eight men, and mortally wounded eight more, of whom Capt. Hutchinson was one.

The remainder of the English fled to Quaboag, Brookfield. The Indians, however, closely pursued them into the town, and burnt every house excepting one, in which the inhabitants had taken refuge. This house at length they surrounded. "For two days they continued to pour a storm of musket balls upon it, and although countless numbers pierced through the walls, but one person was killed. With long poles, they next thrust against it brands, and rags, dipped in brimstone; they shot arrows of fire; they loaded a cart with flax and tow, and with long poles fastened together, they pushed it against the house. Destruction seemed inevitable. The house was kindling, and the savages stood ready to destroy the first that should open the door to escape. At this awful moment a torrent of rain descended, and suddenly extinguished the kindling flames."

August 4th, Major Willard came to their relief, raised the siege, and destroyed a considerable number of the assailants.

During the month of September, Hadley, Deerfield, and Northfield, on Connecticut river, were attacked; several of the inhabitants were killed, and many buildings consumed. On the 18th, Captain Lathrop, with several teams and eighty young men, the flower of the county of Essex, were sent to Deerfield to transport a quantity of grain to Hadley. On their return, stopping to gather grapes at Muddy Brook, they v

suddenly attacked by near eight hundred Indians. Resistance was in vain, and seventy of these young men fell before the merciless enemy, and were buried in one grave. Captain Mosely, who was at Deerfield, hearing the report of the guns, hastened to the spot, and with a few men, attacked the Indians, killed ninety-six, and wounded forty, losing himself but two men.

Early in October, the Springfield Indians, who had hitherto been friendly to the English, concerted a plan, with the hostile tribes, to burn that town. Having, under cover of night, received two or three hundred of Philip's men into their fort, with the assistance of these, they set fire to the town. The plot, however, was discovered so seasonably, that troops arrived from Westfield in time to save the town, excepting thirty-two houses, already consumed.

Soon after hostilities were commenced by Philip, the Tarrentons began their depredations in New-Hampshire, and the Province of Maine. They robbed the boats and plundered the houses of the English. In September they fell on Saco, Scarborough, and Kittery, killed between twenty and thirty of the inhabitants, and consigned their houses, barns, and mills, to the flames.

Elated with these successes, they next advanced towards Piscataqua, committing the same outrages at Oyster river, Salmon Falls, Dover and Exeter. Before winter, sixty of the English in that quarter were killed, and nearly as many buildings consumed.

The Indians in those parts, however, had real ground of complaint. Some seamen, hearing it reported that Indian children could swim by instinct, overset the canoe of Squando, sachem of the Saco Indians, in which were his squaw and infant child. This act Squando could not overlook, especially as some time after the child died, and, as the sachem believed, on account of some injury that it then received. Besides this, several Indians had been enticed on board a vessel, carried off, and sold into slavery. To redress these wrongs, the Indians commenced hostilities.

Notwithstanding the Narragansets had pledged themselves by their treaty not to engage in the war against the English, it was discovered that they were taking part with the enemy. It was deemed necessary, therefore, for the safety of the colonies, early to check that powerful tribe.

Accordingly, governour Winslow of Plymouth, with about one thousand eight hundred troops from Massachusetts and Connecticut, and one hundred and sixty friendly Indians, commenced their march from Pettyquamscot, on the 19th of De-

cember, 1675, through a deep snow, towards the enemy, who were in a swamp about fifteen miles distant.

The army arrived at the swamp at one in the afternoon. Some Indians at the edge of the swamp were fired upon, but fled. The whole army now entered, and pursued the Indians to their fortress.

This stood on a rising ground, in the middle of the swamp. It was a work of great strength and labour, being composed of palisades, and surrounded by a hedge about sixteen feet in thickness.

One entrance only led to the fort, through the surrounding thicket. Upon this the English providentially fell; and without waiting to form, rushed impetuously towards the fort. The English captains entered first. The resistance of the Indians was gallant and warlike. Captains Johnson and Davenport, with many of their men, fell at the entrance. At length the English gave back, and were obliged to retreat out of the fort. At this crisis, the army being on the point of a fatal repulse, some Connecticut men on the opposite side of the fort, discovered a place destitute of palisades; they instantly sprang into the fort, fell upon the rear of the Indians, and, aided by the rest of the army, after a desperate conflict, achieved a complete victory. Six hundred wigwams were now set on fire. The scene was awful. Deep volumes of smoke rolled up to heaven, mingling with the dying shrieks of mothers and infants, while the aged and infirm were consuming in the flames.

Even at this distant period, we cannot recall this scene without pain, and can justify this severity of our ancestors, only by admitting its necessity for self-preservation.

The Indians in the fort were estimated at four thousand; of these seven hundred warriors were killed, and three hundred died of their wounds; three hundred were taken prisoners, and as many women and children. The rest, except such as were consumed, fled.

The victory of the English, complete as it was, was purchased with blood. Six brave captains fell; eighty of the troops were killed or mortally wounded; and one hundred and fifty were wounded who recovered.

From this defeat the Indians never recovered. They were not yet, however, effectually subdued. During the winter they still continued to murder and burn. The towns of Lancaster, Medfield, Weymouth, Groton, Springfield, Northampton, Sudbury, and Marlborough, in Massachusetts, and of Warwick and Providence, in Rhode-Island, were assailed, and some of them partly, and others wholly destroyed. In Martha, Capt. Pierce, with fifty English, and twenty friendly Indians, was attacked.

and every Englishman, and most of the Indians, were slain. In April, Captain Wadsworth, marching with fifty men to the relief of Sudbury, was surrounded, and all either killed on the spot, or reserved for long and distressing tortures.

The success of the Indians, during the winter, had been great; but on the return of spring, the tide turned against them. The Narraganset country was scoured, and many of the natives were killed, among whom was Canonchet, their chief sachem.

On the 12th of August, 1676, the finishing stroke was given to the war in the United colonies, by the death of Philip. After his flight from Mount Hope, he had attempted to rouse the Mohawks against the English. To effect his purpose, he killed, at several times, some of that tribe, and laid it to the English. But his iniquity was discovered, and he was obliged hastily to flee. He returned at length to Mount Hope.

Tidings of his return were brought to Captain Church, a man who had been of eminent service in this war, and who was better able than any other person to provide against the wiles of the enemy. Capt. Church immediately proceeded to the place of Philip's concealment, near Mount Hope, accompanied by a small body of men. On his arrival, which was in the night, he placed his men in ambushes round the swamp, charging them not to move till daylight, that they might distinguish Philip, should he attempt to escape. Such was his confidence of success, that taking Major Sandford by the hand, he said, "It is scarcely possible that Philip should escape." At that instant, a bullet whistled over their heads, and a volley followed.

The firing proceeded from Philip, and his men, who were in view. Perceiving his peril, the savage chief, desperately snatched his powder horn and gun, and ran fiercely towards the spot where an Englishman and Indian lay concealed.—The English soldier levelled his gun, but it missed fire: the Indian fired, and shot Philip through the heart.

Captain Church ordered him to be beheaded, and quartered. The Indian who executed this order, pronounced the warrior's epitaph: "You have been one very great man. You have made many a man afraid of you. But so big as you be, I will now chop you to pieces."

Thus fell a savage hero and patriot—of whose transcendent abilities our history furnishes melancholy evidence.—The advantage of civilized education, and a wider theatre of action, might have made the name of Philip of Mount Hope, as memorable as that of Alexander, or Caesar.

After the death of Philip, the war continued in the province

of Maine, till the spring of 1678. But westward, the Indians having lost their chiefs, wigwams, and provisions, and perceiving further contest vain, came in singly, by tens and hundreds, and submitted to the English.

Thus closed a melancholy period in the annals of New-England history; during which, six hundred men, the flower of her strength, had fallen; twelve or thirteen towns had been destroyed, and six hundred dwelling houses consumed. Every eleventh family was houseless, and every eleventh soldier had sunk to his grave. So costly was the inheritance which our fathers have transmitted to us.

XXIX. The grant of the territory of New-York, by Charles II. to his brother the duke of York, in 1664, has already been noticed, as also its capture from the Dutch, the same year. In 1673, a war commencing between England and Holland, the latter sent a small fleet to New-York, and the town immediately surrendered.

The following year, 1674, the war terminated, and a treaty was concluded between England and Holland. By this treaty New-York was restored to the English. To prevent controversy about his title to the territory, the Duke of York took out a new patent, and appointed Sir Edmund Andross governour, who entered upon the duties of his appointment, in October of the same year.

The administration of Andross, however, was arbitrary and severe. He admitted the people to no share in legislation, but ruled them by laws, to which they had never given their assent.

Connecticut also experienced the weight of his oppression and despotism. That part of her territory west of Connecticut river, although long before granted to the colony of Connecticut, was included in the grant to the duke of York. By virtue of this grant, Andross now claimed jurisdiction over the territory, and in July, 1675, made an attempt with an armed force, to take possession of Saybrook Fort.

The governour and council of Connecticut, having notice of his coming, sent Capt. Bull to defend the fort. On the arrival of Andross at the mouth of the river, after making a show of force, he invited Capt. Bull to a conference. This was granted; but no sooner had he landed, than he attempted to read his commission, and the duke's patent. This Capt. Bull firmly and positively forbid, and Sir Edmund, finding the colony de-

terminated, at all events, not to submit to his government, relinquished his design, and sailed for Long-Island.

XXX. But the colonies had other troubles to experience, and other enemies to combat. In 1676, while the Indian war was still going on, complaints were made in England against the colonies, for violating the acts of trade. These acts imposed oppressive customs upon certain commodities, if imported from any country besides England, or if transported from one colony to another. The acts were considered by the colonies as unjust, impolitick, and cruel. For several years they paid little attention to them, and his majesty at length required, that agents should be sent to England to answer in behalf of the colonies for these violations.

By the acts of trade none of the colonies suffered more than Virginia and Maryland, their operation being greatly to lessen the profits on their tobacco trade, from which a great portion of their wealth was derived. In addition to these sufferings, the colony of Virginia, in violation of chartered rights, was divided, and conveyed away in proprietary grants. Not only uncultivated woodlands were thus conveyed, but also plantations, which had long been possessed, and improved according to law and charter.

The Virginians complained, petitioned, remonstrated—but without effect. Agents were sent to England, to lay their grievances at the foot of the throne, but agents were unsuccessful. At length their oppression became insupportable, and the discontent of the people broke out into open insurrection.

At the head of this insurrection was placed one Nathaniel Bacon, an Englishman, who, soon after his arrival, had been appointed a member of the council. He was a young man of commanding person, and great energy and enterprise.

The colony at this time was engaged in war with the Susquehannah Indians. Bacon despatched a messenger to governour Berkley, requesting a commission to go against the Indians. This commission the governour refused, and, at the same time, ordered Bacon to dismiss his men, and, on penalty of being declared a rebel, to appear before himself and the council. Exasperated by such treatment, Bacon, without disbanding the

rest of his men, proceeded in a sloop with forty of them, to Jamestown. Here a quarrel ensued, and Berkley illegally suspended him from the council. Bacon departed in a rage, with his sloop and men, but the governour pursued him, and adopted such measures that he was taken, and brought to Jamestown.

Finding that he had dismissed Bacon from the council illegally, he now admitted him again, and treated him kindly. Soon after, Bacon renewed his importunity for a commission against the Indians. Being unable to effect his purpose he left Jamestown privately, but soon appeared again with six hundred volunteers, and demanded of the assembly, then sitting, the required commission. Being overawed, the assembly advised the governour to grant it. But soon after Bacon had departed, the governour, by the same advice, issued a proclamation, denouncing him as a rebel.

Hearing what the governour had done, Bacon, instead of marching against the Indians, returned to Jamestown, wreaking his vengeance upon all who opposed him. Governour Berkley fled across the bay to Accomack, but the spirit of rebellion had gone before him. He therefore found himself unable to resist Bacon, who now ranged the country at pleasure.

At length the governour, with a small force, under command of major Robert Beverly, crossed the bay to oppose the malecontents. Civil war had now commenced. Jamestown was burnt by Bacon's followers; various parts of the colony were pillaged, and the wives of those that adhered to the governour's party were carried to the camp of the insurgents.

In the midst of these commotions it pleased the Supreme Ruler to withdraw Bacon by a natural death. The malecontents, thus left to recover their reason, now began to disperse. Two of Bacon's generals surrendered, and were pardoned, and the people quietly returned to their homes.

Upon this Berkley resumed the government, and peace was restored. This rebellion formed an era of some note in the history of Virginia, and its unhappy effects were felt for thirty years. During its continuance, husbandry was almost entirely neglected, and such havock was made among all kinds of cattle, that the people were threatened with distressing famine. Sir William Berkley, after having been forty years governour of Virginia, returned to England, where he soon after died.

Three years after, 1679, lord Culpepper was sent over as governour, with certain laws prepared in conformity to the wishes of the ministry of England, and designed to be enacted by the assembly in Virginia. One of those laws provided for raising a revenue for the support of government. It made the duties

privilege of choosing their own rulers, and had derived great peace and harmony from an impartial government. Nor did this province long enjoy tranquillity. Mason, grandson of the Mason to whom New-Hampshire had been originally granted, came over the next year, and demanded, by virtue of his claims to the soil, a seat in the council. This being granted, he soon after returned to England, and surrendered a part of his claims to the king, and mortgaged the remainder to Edward Cranfield, who was appointed lieutenant governor, and shortly after repaired to New-Hampshire.

It is necessary to add, that the Rev. Mr. Wheelright and others in 1629, the same year that the grant was made to Mason by the Plymouth company, bought of the Indians a large tract of land in New-Hampshire. The same land was, therefore, claimed under both these grants, and the foundation thus laid of serious disputes in the colony.

Cranfield, finding it for his interest to favour the claim of Mason to the province, soon called upon the inhabitants to take their leases under him. Suits were instituted against all the landholders who neglected this call, and the jurors being selected by Cranfield, and interested in the result, uniformly gave judgment against them.

Under these oppressions, the people despatched an agent, with complaints to his majesty, against the governor. After a hearing by the lords of trade, the iniquitous conduct of Cranfield was represented to the king, who recalled him.

It may be proper to add, that the above controversy about the claims of Mason continued long to disturb the peace of the province, and was not finally terminated until the death of Samuel Allen, in 1715, to whom the heirs of Mason had sold their claim for seven hundred and fifty pounds; upon his demise, no one appeared to renew the claims, and the question dropped.

XXXIV. In 1681, King Charles II. granted to William Penn, son of Admiral Penn, in consideration of debts due the latter, for services done to the crown, the territory of PENNSYLVANIA, so called after Penn himself.

This patent encroached on the territory of Lord Baltimore in Maryland, one whole degree, or sixty-nine miles and a half; and on the north, nearly three hundred miles, across the whole territory conveyed to Connecticut, in 1631,* and confirmed by

* See page 28, where the boundaries of the territory granted to Connecticut are given

the royal charter of 1682. Hence arose contentions between the colonies of Pennsylvania and Connecticut, about boundaries, that were not settled till a century after. Within a short time from the date of the grant by king Charles to Penn, two other conveyances were made to him by the duke of York. One was a bill of sale of New-Castle, and a territory of twelve miles around it. The other was a bill granting a tract south of the former, as far as Cape Henlopen. These two deeds embraced the whole state of Delaware. At this time Delaware was divided into three counties, which, in 1662, were annexed to Pennsylvania, although they had a separate assembly; in which the governor of Pennsylvania presided.

The patent of king Charles to Penn provided for the king's sovereignty, and for obedience to British acts, regarding commerce. It gave power to the proprietor to assemble the freemen, or their delegates, as he should judge most convenient; for levying monies and enacting laws, not contrary to the laws of England.

In May, 1681, Penn sent one Markham, with a few others, to take possession and prepare for a settlement. The next year, Penn published a form of government, by which the supreme power was lodged in a general assembly, to consist of a governor, council, and house of delegates. The council and house to be chosen by the freemen. The proprietor and governor to preside, and to have a treble voice in the council, which was to consist of seventy-two members.

It was also agreed, that every person of good moral character, professing his faith in Christ, should be a freeman, and capable of holding any office; and that none who believed in one God, should be molested in his religion; or be compelled to attend, or maintain religious worship.

In October, Penn, with two thousand planters, mostly Quakers, arrived at New-Castle. In December he convoked an assembly; but so few delegates appearing, he ordered, that instead of seventy-two, three members only should constitute the council, and nine the house of assembly.

Penn now entered into a treaty with the Indians, of whom he purchased large tracts of territory; at the same time he commenced the city of Philadelphia, which, in one year, increased to a hundred houses and cottages.

Pennsylvania had a more rapid and prosperous settlement than any of the other colonies. This was doubtless owing partly to its healthful climate and fruitful soil, partly to the fact, that the great obstacles of settlement had been overcome by the other colonies, and partly to the religious tolerance, mildness,

and equity, which characterized its laws, and their administration.

In 1683, Penn, at the request of the freemen, granted them a new charter, by which eighteen persons were to form the council, and thirty-six the assembly. The next year, Penn himself returned to England.

The lasting prosperity of Pennsylvania, the foundation of which must be traced to his wisdom and benevolence, is an eloquent eulogium upon his character.

XXXV. In the year 1684, June 18, an event highly interesting to the colony of Massachusetts, took place in England. This was a decision in the high court of chancery, that she had forfeited her charter, and that henceforth her government should be placed in the hands of the king.

The person chiefly instrumental in bringing about this event was Edmund Randolph, a man who had long been the enemy of the colonies, and who, for several years, had filled the ears of the king with complaints against them for violating the acts of trade.

To answer to these complaints, Massachusetts repeatedly incurred the expense of sending agents to England, and of maintaining them there; but his majesty would accept of no conditions, short of a surrender of her charter. As she would not make this surrender voluntarily, it was violently wrested from her.

XXXVI. Before king Charles had time to adjust the affairs of the colony he died, and was succeeded by James II. Soon after his accession, similar proceedings took place against the other colonies. Rhode-Island submitted, and gave up her charter. Plymouth sent a copy of her charter to the king, with a humble petition that he would restore it. Connecticut voted an address to his majesty, in which she prayed him to recall the writ that had been filed against her, and requested the continuance of her charter.

The petitions and remonstrances of the colonies were, however, of no avail. Both the heart and hand of the king were manifestly against them. After all their hardships and dangers in settling a wilderness, they had no other prospect before them than the destruction of their

dearest rights, and no better security of life, liberty, and property, than the capricious will of a tyrant.

In pursuance of this cruel policy towards the colonies, two years after the charter of Massachusetts was vacated, king James commissioned and sent out Sir Edmund Andross as governour of all New-England, Plymouth excepted. He arrived at Boston, Dec. 20, 1686.

The commencement of his administration was comparatively auspicious. In a few months, however, the fair prospect was changed. Among other arbitrary acts, restraints were laid upon the freedom of the press, and marriage contracts. The liberty to worship in the congregational way was threatened, and the fees of all officers of government were exorbitantly and oppressively enhanced.

In October, Sir Edmund and suite, with a guard of about sixty regular troops, went to Hartford, where the assembly of Connecticut was in session. He entered the house of the assembly, demanded the charter of Connecticut, and declared the colonial government to be dissolved.

Extremely reluctant to surrender the charter, the assembly intentionally protracted its debates till evening, when the charter was brought in, and laid on the table.—Upon a preconcerted signal, the lights were at once extinguished, and a Capt. Wadsworth seizing the charter, hastened away under cover of night, and secreted it in the hollow of an oak. The candles, which had been extinguished, were soon relighted without disorder; but the charter had disappeared. Sir Edmund, however, assumed the government, and the records of the colony were closed.

XXXVII. The condition of the New-England colonies was now distressing, and as the administration of Andross was becoming still more severe and oppressive, the future seemed not to promise alleviation. But Providence was invisibly preparing the way for their relief. Nov. 5th, 1688, William, Prince of Orange, who married Mary, daughter of James II. landed at Torbay, in England, and, compelling James II. to leave the kingdom, assumed the crown, being proclaimed Feb. 16th, 1689, to the general joy of the nation.

Notes.

XXXVIII. Manners of the Colonists. In the colonies of North America, at the close of this period, three varieties of character might be distinguished. In *New-England*, the strict puritanical notions of the people wrought a correspondent austerity upon the manners of society. Placing implicit faith in the Scriptures, they moulded their government, and shaped private character and morals upon a severe and literal construction of them. They were devout—patriotic—industrious—and public spirited; and though of a grave, reflecting exterior, they often showed that shrewd inquisitiveness and keen relish of a jest, which are still characteristic of the New-Englanders.

The laws of the colonies throw some light on the views and manners of the people. As examples, in 1639, the drinking of healths was prohibited by law in Massachusetts. In 1651, the legislature of that colony prohibited all persons, whose "estate did not exceed two hundred pounds, from wearing any gold or silver lace, or any bone lace above two shillings per yard." The law authorized the select men to take notice of the costliness and fashion of the "apparel of the people, especially in the wearing of ribands and great boots." The New-Haven colony, in 1639, resolved that they would be governed by the rules of Scripture; and that church members only should act in the civil affairs of the Plantation.

In 1647, the colony of Connecticut expressed their disapprobation of the use of tobacco, by an act of assembly, in which it was ordered, "that no person under the age of twenty years, nor any other that hath already accustomed himself to the use thereof, shall take any tobacco; until he shall have brought a certificate from under the hand of some who are approved for knowledge and skill in physic, that it is useful for him; and also that he hath received a license from the court for the same." All others, who had addicted themselves to the use of tobacco, were, by the same court, prohibited taking it in any company, or at their labours, or on their travels, unless they were ten miles at least from any house, or more than once a day, though not in company, on pain of a fine of sixpence for each time; to be proved by one substantial witness. The

constable in each town to make presentment of such transgressions to the particular court, and upon conviction, the fine to be paid without gainsaying."

In the colony of *New-York*, during this period, the manners of the colonists were strictly Dutch—with no other modifications than the privations of a new country, and the few English among them, necessarily effected.

The same steadfast pursuit of wealth; the same plodding industry; the same dress, air, and physiognomy, which are given as characteristic of Holland, were equally characteristic of the inhabitants of New-Amsterdam.

In *Virginia*, the manners of the colonists were those of the less rigid English, rendered still more free and voluptuous by the influence of a softer climate and a more prolific soil.

Such says of the first settlers of this colony, that some emigrated "to escape a worse fate at home;" others, it is said, sought to repair fortunes by emigration, which had been ruined by excess. Many persons, however, of high character, were among the emigrants, and amidst the licentiousness of the *Virginia* colony were found, at the close of this period, the seeds of that frankness, hospitality, taste, and refinement, which distinguish the people of the South at this day.

Other national peculiarities might be noticed, as those of the *Fins* in Delaware, those of the Quakers in Pennsylvania, &c.; but at this period they were too limited to require a distinct notice in our work.

XXXIX. Religion. The colony of *Virginia*, from its earliest existence, was exclusively devoted to the Church of England.

For several years, its unsettled state prevented that attention to a religious establishment, which afterwards the subject received. At the expiration of thirteen years from the founding of the colony, there were but eleven parishes, and five ministers; the inhabitants of the colony did not at this time, however, much exceed two thousand persons.

In 1621, the colony received a large accession to its numbers, and the governour and council were instructed "to take into special regard the service of Almighty God, and the observance of his divine laws; and that the people should be trained up in true religion and virtue." At the same time, the *Virginia* Company ordered a hundred acres of land, in each of the boroughs, to be laid off for a glebe, and two hundred pounds sterling to be raised, as a standing and certain revenue out of

profits of each parish, to make a living: this stipend was settled—that the minister shall receive yearly five hundred pounds of tobacco, and sixteen barrels of corn; which were collectively estimated at two hundred pounds sterling. 1642, the assembly passed a law prohibiting all, but those who had been ordained by English bishops, from preaching.

1650, during the time of governor Berkley, the parishes and colony were further regulated, the religion of the church in England was confirmed and established, and provision made for the support of the ministers. The maintenance of a minister was put at sixteen thousand pounds of tobacco, which, as valued at that time, at ten shillings per hundred, was about two hundred pounds sterling. But in addition to this, he had a parsonage house and glebe; also four hundred pounds of tobacco, or twenty shillings for a funeral sermon, and two hundred pounds of tobacco, or twenty shillings for performing marriage by license, or five shillings when the banns were proclaimed. The tobacco destined for the minister was brought to him, well packed in hogsheads, prepared for shipping. To raise this crop, a number of negroes were necessary.

The special object of the New-England planters, in settling the country, was the enjoyment of their religious liberties, and the free exercise of religious worship, without molestation. Early attention was, therefore, paid to the gathering of churches, and the regulation of religion. They were Calvinists in doctrine, and congregational in discipline.

Each church maintained its right to govern itself. They maintained the validity of Presbyterian ordination, and the efficacy of synods on great occasions. From the commencement, they used ecclesiastical councils, convoked by particular churches for advice, but not for the judicial determination of controversies.

In each of the churches there was a pastor, teacher, ruling elder, and deacons. The pastor's office consisted principally in exhortation; upon the teacher devolved the business of explaining and defending the doctrines of christianity. The business of the ruling elder was to assist the pastor in the government of the church.

Early provision was made for the support of the ministry. On the arrival of the colonists of Massachusetts Bay, at Charles Town, before landing, a court of assistants was held, and the question proposed was, How shall the ministers be maintained? The court ordered that houses be built, and salaries assigned for them at the public charge. Their two ministers,

Mr. Phillips, and Mr. Wilson, were granted a salary—The former thirty pounds per annum, and the latter twenty pounds, until the arrival of his wife.

After the settlement of the several colonies, all persons were obliged by law to contribute to the support of the church. Special care was taken that all persons should attend public worship. In Connecticut the law obliged them to be present on the Lord's day—on all days of public fasting, and thanksgiving, appointed by civil authority, on penalty of five shillings, for every instance of neglect.

By the year 1642, twenty-two years from the landing of the pilgrims at Plymouth, there had been settled in New-England, seventy-seven ministers, who were driven from the parent country, fifty towns and villages had been planted, and thirty or forty churches gathered.

In 1637, the first synod convened in America, sat at Newtown, Massachusetts, and was composed of all the teaching elders in the country, and messengers of the several churches. Magistrates also were present, and spoke as they thought fit. The object of calling this synod was to inquire into the opinions of one Ann Hutchinson, a very extraordinary woman, who held public lectures in Boston, and taught doctrines considered heretical. The whole colony was agitated and divided into parties. The synod, after a session of three weeks, condemned eighty-two erroneous opinions which had become disseminated in New-England.

The *Dutch Reformed Church* was introduced into New-York with the first settlers, and was generally embraced by the Dutch population of that colony.

The *Roman Catholics* first came to America in 1632; they settled in Maryland, and now constitute a respectable and numerous portion of the inhabitants of that state.

The first *Baptist* church in America was formed at Providence in 1639. Their sentiments spreading into Massachusetts, in 1651, the general court passed a law against them, inflicting banishment for persisting in the promulgation of their doctrines.

In 1656, the *Quakers* making their appearance in Massachusetts, the legislature of that colony passed severe laws against them.

No master of a vessel was allowed to bring any one of this sect into its jurisdiction, on penalty of one hundred pounds. Other still severer penalties were inflicted upon them in 1687.

such as cutting their ears, and boring their tongues with a hot iron, &c. They were at length banished on pain of death, and four, refusing to go, were executed in 1659.

Without intending to justify these severities towards the Baptists, Quakers, and other sectaries, it is still proper to state, as some apology for them, that the conduct of the leaders of these sects was often calculated, and no doubt designed, to provoke persecution. They sought improper occasions to inculcate their peculiar tenets—departed unnecessarily from the decencies of social intercourse, and rudely inveighed against established and cherished opinions. In this way the peace of the colonies was disturbed, and that unanimity of religious sentiment which had hitherto existed, was broken. Our forefathers sought to avert these evils by the arm of civil power; not yet having learnt that persecution is a ready way to propagate the sentiments of the persecuted.

In the year 1648, a synod met at Cambridge, which, by adjournment, protracted its session to 1648, when it dissolved. This synod composed and adopted the "Cambridge Platform," and recommended it, together with the Westminster Confession of Faith, to the General Court and to the churches. In this synod were present the ministers and churches of Connecticut, and New-Haven, who united in the form of discipline which it recommended. This, in connexion with the ecclesiastical laws, was the religious constitution of Connecticut, until the compilation of the Saybrook Platform, a period of about sixty years.

XL. Trade and Commerce. The colonies, during this period, had little other trade than with England, though the West-India trade had begun, and there was some commerce with Canada, and a few ports on the European continent. The colonies imported from England all their merchandise; and exported thither tobacco, peltry, and at length some beef, pork, grain, and fish. The importations from England, however, much exceeded the exports thither.

During the first thirty years of the colony of Virginia, their exports were confined to tobacco. But the price of it fell at length from three shillings and sixpence per pound, to twenty shillings per hundred, in consequence of which, a trade was opened with the frontier Indians, and the Five Nations. The skins of the deer, elk, and buffalo, and the furs of the otter, hare, fox, muskrat, and beaver, were procured for rum, hatchets, blankets, &c. These skins and furs were exported to

England. English grain and Indian corn were also exported to a considerable extent. Although the Virginians owned a few vessels, the greater part of the trade was carried on by English vessels, during this period. They brought to the colony English manufactures, and took tobacco, furs, skins, grain, tar, pitch, &c. in return. The Virginians also carried on some trade with Canada.

The principal article of export from New-England, during this period, was peltry, which was procured of the Indians for goods of small value. In 1639, a fishing trade was begun at Cape Anne, and in 1641, three hundred thousand Codfish were sent to market.

The first vessel directly from the West Indies was a Dutch ship of 160 tons, which arrived at Marblehead, 1635. The first American vessel that went to the West Indies was a pinnace of thirty tons, in 1636. The ship *Desire* of Salem made a voyage in 1638 to New-Providence and Tortuga, and returned laden with cotton, tobacco, salt, and negroes. This was the first introduction of African slaves into New-England. The first importation of indigo, and sugar, from the West Indies, mentioned in our accounts, was made in 1639. In 1642, a Dutch ship exchanged a cargo of salt for plank and pipe staves, the exports of lumber from New-England. The next year, eleven ships sailed for the West Indies with lumber.

In 1678, the annual exports of the New-York colony, besides beef, pork, tobacco, and peltry, were about sixty thousand bushels of wheat. About ten or fifteen vessels on an average of one hundred tons, English and Colonial, traded to this colony in a year.

XLI. Agriculture. Early attention was paid to agriculture. The first business of the settlers was to clear the forests and supply themselves with food from the soil. But the fertility of the earth taught them soon to look to agriculture as a source of wealth, as well as subsistence. It therefore became the leading object of industry in the colonies.

The method adopted by the first settlers to clear the land was very slow and laborious, compared with the present modes. They used generally to cut down the trees and dig up the stumps before tillage.

Tobacco was early cultivated in Virginia, and soon began to be exported. The year after the colony landed, the people gathered corn of their own planting, the seed of which they received of the Indians. Vineyards were attempted, and experienced vine-dressers were sent over for the purpose of tak-

are of them. Flax, hemp, barley, &c. were cultivated to considerable extent. Rye was first raised in Massachusetts, 1633. Ploughs were early introduced into the country. The first neat cattle, ever brought into New-England, were introduced by Mr. Winslow, in 1624. In 1629, one hundred forty head of cattle, some horses, sheep, and goats, were brought to Massachusetts Bay. In a few years they became numerous as to supply all the wants of the inhabitants. In the cattle in Virginia had increased to above one thousand head.

New-York raised considerable beef and pork for exportation and in 1678, they exported sixty thousand bushels of

II. Arts and Manufactures. The colonies, during this period, being chiefly occupied in gaining subsistence, and in protecting themselves against their enemies, had occasion for few articles beyond the necessities and comforts of life. Arts and manufactures could, therefore, receive but little encouragement, beyond the protection of such articles, and even those were principally imported.

In 1620, one hundred and fifty persons came from England to Virginia to carry on the manufacture of silks, iron, potash, pitch, glass, salt, &c. but they did not succeed. In 1673, a writer says of New-England, "There be five iron works—no cast no guns—no house in New-England has above five rooms—not twenty in Boston have ten rooms each—a new school was set up here, but put down—a fencing school is allowed. There be no musicians by trade. All cordage, sail-cloth, and mats, come from England—no cloth made worth four shillings per yard—no alum, no copperas, no made by their sun."

The first buildings of the settlers were made of logs and mud, or were built of stone. Brick and framed houses were soon built in the larger towns, and afterwards in the villages.

The frames and brick were, however, in some instances imported. The first mill in New-England was a wind-mill near Watertown, but it was taken down in 1632, and a new one in the vicinity of Boston. Water-mills began to be built the next year.

The first attempt to build water-craft, in New-England, was made at Boston, in 1626. A house carpenter sawed their largest vessel into two parts, and lengthened it five or six feet, built the sides, and rigged it into a convenient vessel, which did serve

vice for seven years. The first vessel, built in Massachusetts, was a bark in 1631, called *The Blessing of the Bay*. In 1633, a ship of sixty tons was built at Medford. In 1636, one of one hundred and twenty tons was built at Marblehead. In 1641, a ship of three hundred tons was launched at Salem, and one of one hundred and sixty tons at Boston. From this time ship building rapidly extended in the northern colonies.

The first printing in New-England, was done in 1639, by one Day. The proprietor of the press was a clergyman, by the name of Glover, who died on his passage to America. The first thing printed was the Freeman's Oath, the second an Almanack, and the third an edition of the Psalms. No other printing press was established in America during this period. John Elliot, the celebrated missionary, having translated the bible into the Indian language, had it printed at Cambridge in 1664.

The mode of travelling considerable distances was on foot or on horseback, their being no carriages for that purpose, and the roads from one village to another being only narrow foot-paths, through forests.

XLIII. Population. We may estimate the population of the English American Colonies at the close of this period at about 200,000.

XLIV. Education. In New-England schools were founded at the outset of the colonies for the education of *all classes*: in the southern colonies, provisions for the education of the *higher classes only* were attempted during this period.

Scarcely had the American colonists opened the forests, and constructed habitations, before they directed their attention to the object of education.

Previously to 1619, the king of England authorized the collection of monies throughout the kingdom to erect a college in Virginia, for the education of Indian children; one thousand five hundred pounds were collected for this purpose, and *Henrico* was selected as a suitable place for a seminary. The same year, the Virginia company granted ten thousand acres of land for the projected university.—This donation, while it embraced the original object, was intended also for the foundation of a seminary of learning for English scholars.

In addition to a college, the colonists, in 1621, instituted a school at Charles' city for the benefit of all the colony, which they called the *East India School*. For the maintenance of the master and ~~scholar~~ ^{scholar}, one thousand acres of land were appro-

ated, with five servants and an overseer.—From this school, pupils were to be transferred to the college at Henrico, when the latter should be sufficiently endowed. These establishments in Virginia, however, failed of success, and in 1692 their funds were given to William and Mary's college, which we shall notice hereafter.

Still more attentive to education were the northern colonies. In 1630 a general court of Massachusetts Bay appropriated the sum of four hundred pounds towards the commencement of a college. In 1637 the college was located at Newtown, which, not long after, was called *Cambridge*, in memory of Cambridge in England, where many of the colonists had received their education. Mr. John Harvard, a worthy minister, dying at Charlestown about this time, bequeathed nearly eight hundred pounds to the college, in consideration of which legacy, it was called after him. In 1642 was held the first commencement, at which nine were graduated.

To this institution, the plantations of Connecticut and New-Haven, so long as they remained unable to support a similar one at home, contributed funds from the public purse; and sent to it such of their youth as they wished to be educated. Private subscriptions were also made from the united colonies, to aid the institution.

Great attention was also paid by all the northern colonies to the subject of common schools. As a specimen of the arrangements common to the New-England colonies, we may notice those of Connecticut. By her first code, in 1639, only six years from the time the first house was erected within the colony, it was ordered that every town, consisting of fifty families, should maintain a good school, in which reading and writing should be well taught, and that in every county town, a good grammar school should be instituted. Large tracts of land were appropriated by the legislature as a permanent support of these schools, and the selectmen of every town were required to see that all heads of families instructed their children and servants to read the English tongue well.

Reflections.

XLV. At the commencement of this period, our history presented us with a continent, over whose surface an interminable wilderness had for ages cast its deep and solemn shade. If we approach the shore, and look through the gloom that gathers over it, the scenes which strike the eye are Indians at

striking examples of this. In Virginia, the free and licentious manners of society produce a government unsteady and capricious. This government reacts upon their manners, and aids rather than checks their licentiousness. On the contrary, in New-England, the severe puritanical manners of the people produce a rigid, energetick government, and this government returns its puritanical influence back upon the manners of the people.

UNITED STATES.



Period III.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE WARS OF KING WILLIAM,
QUEEN ANNE, AND GEORGE II.



William.

Anne.

George II.

Extending from the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, 1689, to the Declaration of the War by England against France, 1756, called "the French and Indian War."

Section I. The news of William's accession to the throne of England, filled the colonies with ecstasy. Under the sudden impulse of their feelings, the inhabitants of Boston seized Sir Edmund Andross, with about fifty of his associates, and put them in close confinement, where they lay, until ordered to England, to answer for maleadministration. Connecticut and Rhode-Island immediately resumed their charters, and were permitted by his majesty to re-establish their former governments. Massachusetts soon after obtained a new charter, in some respects less favourable to the colony, but in others, more so, than its former one.

Andross had formerly been governour of New-York, under the duke of York, in which province his administration had been distinguished for measures both arbitrary and severe. Subsequent governours, under the duke, and after he came to the throne, had generally pursued a similar course. The discontents of the people had been gradually increasing, and they were ready for revolution, when the above intelligence of the proceedings at Boston arrived. A revolution soon commenced, and, although attended by unhappy events, issued in the restoration of the rights of the people, and the formation of a consitution, which laid the foundation of their provincial code.

From the reduction of New-York, in 1664, to 1683, the people had no share in the government. In 1681, the council court of assizes, and corporation, had solicited the duke of York to permit the people to choose their own rulers. Accordingly, the next year, Thomas Dongan, a papist, was appointed governour, with instructions to call an assembly, to consist of a council of ten, and of eighteen representatives, elected by the freeholders.

On the accession of the duke of York to the throne, under the title of James II. he refused to confirm to the people the privileges granted them when he was duke. No assembly was permitted to be convened; printing presses were prohibited, and the more important provincial offices were conferred on papists.

Such was the state of things, when intelligence of the seizure of Andross arrived. This gave a spring to the general dissatisfaction, which burst forth into open resistance to the existing administration.

One Jacob Leisler, with several others, immediately took possession of the fort. Governour Dongan had just embarked for England, leaving the administration of the government, during his absence, to Charles Nicholson, at that time his deputy. Nicholson and his officers made what opposition to Leisler they were able, but he having been joined by six militia captains, and four hundred and seventy men, Nicholson absconded. Upon this, Leisler assumed the supreme command.

This assumption of Leisler was far from being pleasant to the council and magistrates, at the head of whom were Col. Bayard and the mayor. Finding it impossible, however, to succeed against Leisler in New-York, they retired to Albany, and there employed their influence to foment opposition. Both Leisler, in New-York, and the people at Albany, held

their respective garrisons in the name of William and Mary, but neither would submit to the authority of the other.

In this state of things, a letter from the Lords Carnarthen and Halifax, arrived, directed "To Francis Nicholson, Esq. or in his absence, to such as, for the time being, take care for preserving the peace and administering the laws," &c. Accompanying this letter, was another of a subsequent date, vesting Nicholson with the chief command.

As Nicholson had absconded, Leisler construed the letter as directed to himself, and from that time assumed the title and authority of lieutenant governour. The southern part of New-York generally submitted to him; but Albany refusing subjection, Milborn, his son-in-law, was sent to reduce them. In his first attempt he failed; but during the ensuing spring, 1690, he took possession of the fort, and the inhabitants submitted.

On the 19th of March, 1691, Col. Slaughter arrived at New-York, in the capacity of the king's governour. Nicholson and Bayard, who had been imprisoned by Leisler, were released. The latter was obliged to abandon the fort, and with Milborn, his son-in-law, was apprehended, tried for high treason, and condemned. Their immediate execution was urged by the people; but the governour, fearful of consequences, chose to defer it. To effect their purpose, an invitation was given him by the citizens to a sumptuous feast, and while his reason was drowned in intoxication, a warrant for their execution was presented to him and signed. Before he recovered his senses, the prisoners were no more.

Measures so violent greatly agitated the existing parties, but in the end, the revolution which had taken place restored the rights of Englishmen to the colony. Governour Slaughter convoked an assembly, who formed a constitution. This constitution, among other provisions, secured trials by jury, freedom from taxation, except by the consent of the assembly, and toleration to all denominations of Christians, excepting Roman Catholics.

II. While these troubles were distressing the colonies of the north, that of Carolina, in the south, was far from being in a state of tranquillity. Dissensions early arose in that colony respecting the proprietary government, under which they still continued. On the one hand, a part of the people insisted upon implicit obedience to all the laws and regulations of the proprietors in England: while another part contended, on the other hand, that no such

obedience was due. Both parties being ardent and determined, the conflict between them was violent, and greatly prolonged, to the serious injury of the colony.

In addition to these dissensions, others arose between the English settlers, and a colony of French Protestants, who had planted themselves in the county of Craven; to whom the English denied nearly every civil privilege, and especially the right of representation in the assembly.

In view of these accumulating troubles, John Archdale, one of the proprietors, was sent to America in 1695, with full powers to redress grievances, and, if possible, to adjust existing differences.

Archdale was received with cordiality, and by his singular wisdom and address, was so happy as to accomplish the purposes of his mission, except that he was unable fully to secure the rights and liberties of the French refugees. Not long after, however, the prejudices of the English against them abated, and they became incorporated with the freemen of the colony.

III. About this period, 1692, commenced in Danvers, then a part of Salem, Massachusetts, a singular infatuation on the supposed prevalence of witchcraft. In a short time, this infatuation pervaded several parts of New-England, producing, in its progress, the greatest distress in private families, and disorder and tumult throughout the country.

The first suspicion of witchcraft in New-England, and in the United States, began at Springfield, Massachusetts, as early as 1645. Several persons, about that time, were accused, tried, and executed in Massachusetts; one at Charlestown, one at Dorchester, one at Cambridge, and one at Boston. For almost thirty years afterwards the subject rested. But in 1687 or 1688, it was revived in Boston; four of the children of John Goodwin uniting in accusing a poor Irish woman with bewitching them. Unhappily the accusation was regarded with attention, and the woman was tried and executed. Near the close of February, 1692, the subject was again revived, in consequence of several children in Danvers, Salem, beginning to act in a peculiar and unaccountable manner. Their strange conduct continuing for several days, their friends betook themselves to fasting and prayer. During

religious exercises it was found that the children were generally decent and still; but after service was ended, they renewed their former inexplicable conduct. This was deemed sufficient evidence that they were labouring under the influence of witchcraft.

At the expiration of some days, the children began to accuse several persons in the neighbourhood of bewitching them. Unfortunately they were credited, and the suspected authors of the spell were seized and imprisoned.

From this date, the awful mania rapidly spread into the neighbouring country, and soon appeared in various parts of Essex, Middlesex, and Suffolk. Persons at Andover, Ipswich, Gloucester, Boston, and several other places, were accused by their neighbours and others.

For some time, the victims were selected only from the lower classes. But at length the accusations fell upon persons of the most respectable rank. In August, Mr. George Burroughs, some time minister in Salem, was accused, brought to trial, and condemned. Accusations were also brought against Mr. English, a respectable merchant in Salem, and his wife; against Messrs. Dudley and John Bradstreet, sons of the then late governour Bradstreet; against the wife of Mr. Hale, and the lady of Sir William Phipps.

The evil had now become awfully alarming. One man, named Giles Corey, had been pressed to death for refusing to put himself on trial by jury; and nineteen persons had been executed, more than one-third of whom were members of the church. One hundred and fifty were in prison, and two hundred were accused.

At length the inquiry was anxiously suggested, where will this accumulating mischief and misery end? A conviction began to spread that the proceedings had been rash and indefensible. A special court was held on the subject, and fifty who were brought to trial, were acquitted, excepting three, who were afterwards reprieved by the governour. These events were followed by a general release of those who had been imprisoned. "Thus the cloud," says the late President Dwight, "which had so long hung over the colony, slowly and sullenly retired; and like the darkness of Egypt, was, to the great joy of the distressed inhabitants, succeeded by serenity and sunshine."

We, who live to look back upon this scene, are wont to contemplate, with wonder, the seeming madness and infatuation, not of the weak, illiterate, and unprincipled; but of men of sense, education, and fervent piety. Let us consider, however, that at this period, the actual existence of witchcraft was

taken for granted, and that doubts respecting it were deemed little less than heresy. The learned Baxter, who lived at this time in England, where the same notions on this subject prevailed, pronounced the disbeliever in witchcraft, an "obdurate Sadducee;" and Sir Matthew Hale, one of the brightest ornaments of the English bench, repeatedly tried and condemned those as criminals, who were accused of witchcraft.

It becomes the present generation to advert with gratitude to their freedom from those delusions which distressed and agitated their ancestors, rather than to bestow invectives upon them, since they could plead in palliation of their error—the spirit of the age in which they lived.

IV. Scarcely were the colonies relieved from the oppression of King James, before they were visited with troubles of a nature still more distressing. The revolution, which followed the accession of William and Mary, had indeed restored their liberties, but it involved them in a war both with the French and Indians, which continued from 1690, to the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, commonly called "*King William's War*."

King James, on leaving England, fled to France. Louis XIV. king of France, attempting to support him, kindled the flame of war between his own country and England. The subjects of Louis, in Canada, of course directed their arms against the colonies of New-England and New-York, and instigated the Indians to join them in their hostilities.

Count Frontenac, a brave and enterprising officer, was now the governour of Canada. Inflamed with the resentment which had kindled in the bosom of his master, Louis XIV. of France, against William, for his treatment of James, he fitted out three expeditions, in the dead of winter, against the American colonies—one against New-York, a second against New-Hampshire, and a third against the province of Maine. Each of these parties, in the execution of their orders, marked their progress with plunder, fire, and death.

The party destined against New-York, consisting of about three hundred men, in February fell upon Schenectady, a village on the Mohawk. The season was cold, and the snow so deep, that it was deemed impossible for an enemy to approach. The attack was made in the dead of the night, while the inhabitants were in a profound sleep. Not a sentinel was awake

to announce the approaching danger. Care had been taken, by a division of the enemy, to attack almost every house in the same moment.

When the preparations were ready, on a preconcerted signal, the appalling war-whoop was begun; houses were broken open and set on fire—men and women were dragged from their beds, and with their sleeping infants were inhumanly murdered. Sixty persons perished in the massacre, thirty were made prisoners, while the rest of the inhabitants, mostly naked, fled through a deep snow, either suffering extremely, or perishing in the cold.

The second party, directing their course to New-Hampshire, burned Salmon Falls, killing thirty of the bravest men, and carrying fifty-four of the inhabitants into a miserable captivity.

The third party, proceeding from Quebec, destroyed the settlement of Casco, in Maine, and killed and captured one hundred people.

V. Roused by these proceedings of the French, the colony of Massachusetts resolved to attack the enemy in turn. Accordingly an expedition consisting of seven vessels, and eight hundred men, under command of Sir William Phipps, sailed for the reduction of Port Royal, in Nova-Scotia, which was easily and speedily effected.

A second expedition, under the same commander, was soon after resolved upon by the colonies of New-York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, united, for the reduction of Montreal and Quebec. A combination of unfortunate circumstances, however, defeated the design, and the expedition, after encountering numerous hardships and disasters, returned.

The plan was for the troops of New-York and Connecticut, consisting of about two thousand, to penetrate into Canada, by Lake Champlain, and to attack Montréal, at the same time that the naval armament, consisting of between thirty and forty vessels, with a similar number of men, should invest Quebec. The troops destined for Montreal not being supplied, either with boats or provisions, sufficient for crossing the lake, were obliged to return. The naval expedition did not reach Quebec, until October. After spending several days in consultation, the landing of the troops was effected, and they began their march for the town. At the same time the ships were drawn up; but the attack, both by land and water, was

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like unsuccessful. The troops were soon after re-embarked, and the weather, proving tempestuous, scattered the fleet, and terminated the expedition.

The success of the expedition had been so confidently calculated upon, that provision had not been made for the payment of the troops; there was danger, therefore, of a mutiny. In this extremity, Massachusetts issued bills of credit, as a substitute for money; the first emission of the kind in the American colonies.

VI. The failure of the expedition to Quebec was humbling to New-England, and productive of other unhappy consequences. The Indian tribes, Mohawks, Oneidas, Senecas, Onondagas, and Delawares, called the *Five Nations*, settled along the banks of the Susquehannah, and in the adjacent country, who were in alliance with Great Britain, and had long been a safeguard to the colonies against the French, became dissatisfied. They blamed the English for their inactivity, and manifested a disposition to make peace with the French.

To restore the confidence of the Indian allies, Major P. Schuyler, the next year, 1691, with three thousand men, nearly half Mohawks and Schakook Indians, made an attack on the French settlements, north of Lake Champlain. De Callieres, governour of Montreal, was waiting to oppose him. After a severe encounter, Schuyler made good his retreat, having killed thirteen officers and three hundred men.

New-York found great security against the encroachments of the French, in the Five Nations, who now carried on a vigorous war, along the river St. Lawrence, from Montreal to Quebec.

But the eastern portion of the country, particularly New-Hampshire, suffered exceedingly; the storm falling with the greatest severity upon them. Both Connecticut and Massachusetts raised troops for their defence; but such was the danger and distress of the colony of New-Hampshire, that the inhabitants were upon the point of abandoning the Province.

The winter of 1696 was unusually severe. Never had the country sustained such losses in commerce, nor had provisions, in any period of the war, been more scarce, or borne a higher price.

VII. In the midst of these distresses, the country was threatened with a blow, which it seemed impossible that it should sustain. The marquis Nesmond, an officer of high

réputation, was despatched from France, with ten ships of the line, a galliot, and two frigates. Count Frontenac, from Canada, was expected to join him at Penobscot, with one thousand five hundred men. With this force, they were to make a descent on Boston; to range the coast of Newfoundland, and burn the shipping which should fall in their way. To finish their work of destruction, they were to take New-York, whence the troops, under Frontenac, were to return to Canada, through the country, wasting and destroying the regions through which they should pass. But De Nesmond sailed too late for the accomplishment of his purpose. On his arrival on the coast, not being able to join Frontenac in season, the expedition failed, and the colonies were saved. At length, Dec. 10, 1697, a treaty was concluded between France and England, at Ryswick, in Germany, by which it was agreed, in general terms, that a mutual restitution should be made of all the countries, forts, and colonies, taken by each party during the war.

King William's war, which was thus terminated, had been marked by atrocities on the part of the French and Indians, until then unknown in the history of the colonies. Infants, when they became troublesome, were despatched by being dashed against a stone or tree. Or, to add to the anguish of a mother, her babe was sometimes lacerated with a scourge, or nearly strangled under water, and then presented to her to quiet. If unable soon to succeed in this, it was too effectually quieted by the hatchet, or left behind to become the prey of prowling beasts. Some of the captives were roasted alive; others received deep wounds in the fleshy parts of their bodies, into which sticks on fire were thrust, until tormented out of life, they expired.

The details of individual sufferings, which occurred during this war, were they faithfully recorded, would excite the sympathies of the most unfeeling bosom. One instance only can we relate.

In an attack by a body of Indians on Haverhill, New-Hampshire, in the winter of 1697, the concluding year of the war, a party of the assailants, burning with savage animosity, approached the house of a Mr. Dustan. Upon the first alarm, he flew from a neighbouring field to his family, with the hope of hurrying them to a place of safety. Seven of his children he

directed to flee, while he himself went to assist his wife, who was confined to the bed with an infant, a week old. But before she could leave her bed, the savages arrived.

In despair of rendering her assistance, Mr. Dustan flew to the door, mounted his horse, and determined in his own mind, to snatch up and save the child which he loved the best. He followed in pursuit of his little flock, but upon coming up to them, he found it impossible to make a selection. The eye of the parent could see no one of the number that he could abandon to the knife of the savage. He determined, therefore, to meet his fate with them; to defend and save them from their pursuers, or die by their side.

A body of Indians soon came up with him, and, from short distances, fired upon him and his little company. For more than a mile he continued to retreat, placing himself between his children and the fire of the savages; and returning their shots with great spirit and success. At length he saw them all safely lodged from their bloody pursuers, in a distant house.

It is not easy to find a nobler instance of fortitude and courage, inspired by affection, than is exhibited in this instance. Let us ever cultivate the influence of those ties of kindred, which are capable of giving so generous and elevated a direction to our actions.

As Mr. Dustan quitted his house, a party of Indians entered it. Mrs. Dustan was in bed; but they ordered her to rise, and, before she could completely dress herself, obliged her and the nurse, who had vainly endeavoured to escape with the infant, to quit the house, which they plundered and set on fire.

In these distressing circumstances Mrs. Dustan began her march, with other captives, into the wilderness. The air was keen, and their path led alternately through snow and deep mud; and her savage conductors delighted rather in the infliction of torment than the alleviation of distress.

The company had proceeded but a short distance, when an Indian, thinking the infant an incumbrance, took it from the nurse's arms, and violently terminated its life. Such of the other captives as began to be weary, and incapable of proceeding, the Indians killed with their tomahawks. Feeble as Mrs. Dustan was, both she and her nurse sustained, with wonderful energy, the fatigue and misery attending a journey of one hundred and fifty miles.

On their arrival at the place of their destination, they found the wigwam of the savage, who claimed them as his personal property, to be inhabited by twelve Indians. In the ensuing April, this family set out with their captives, for an Indian settlement still more remote. The captives were informed that

on their arrival at the settlement, they must submit to be stripped, scourged, and run the gauntlet, between two files of Indians. This information carried distress to the minds of the captive women, and led them promptly to devise some means of escape.

Early in the morning of the 31st, Mrs. Dustan awaking her nurse and another fellow-prisoner, they despatched ten of the twelve Indians while asleep. The other two escaped. The women then pursued their difficult and toilsome journey through the wilderness, and at length arrived in safety at Haverhill. Subsequently, they visited Boston, and received, at the hand of the General Court, a handsome consideration for their extraordinary sufferings and conduct.

VIII. Scarcely had the colonies recovered from the wounds and impoverishment of King William's war, which ended in 1697, before they were again involved in the horrors of another war with the French, Indians, and Spaniards, commonly called "*Queen Anne's War*," which continued from 1702, to the peace of Utrecht, March 31st, 1713.

By the treaty of Ryswick, it was in general terms agreed, that France and England should mutually restore to each other all conquests made during the war. But the rights and pretensions of either monarch to certain places in Hudson's Bay, &c. were left to be ascertained and determined at some future day, by commissioners.

The evil consequences of leaving boundaries thus unsettled were soon perceived. Disputes arose, which, mingling with other differences of still greater importance, led England to declare war against France and Spain, May 4th, 1702.

IX. The whole weight of the war in America, unexpectedly fell on New-England. The geographical position of New-York particularly exposed that colony to a combined attack from the lakes and sea; but just before the commencement of hostilities, a treaty of neutrality was concluded between the Five Nations and the French governour in Canada. The local situation of the Five Nations, bordering on the frontiers of New-York, prevented the French from molesting that colony; Massachusetts and New-Hampshire were thus left to bear the chief calamities of the war.

The declaration of war was immediately followed by

incursions of French and Indians from Canada into these colonies, who seized every opportunity for annoying the inhabitants by depredation and outrage.

On Tuesday, Feb. 29th, 1704, at day break, a party of French and Indians, three hundred in number, under command of the infamous Hextel De Rouville, fell upon Deerfield, Mass. Unhappily, not only the inhabitants, but even the watch were asleep. They soon made themselves masters of the house in which the garrison was kept. Proceeding thence to the house of Mr. Williams, the clergyman, they forced the doors, and entered the room where he was sleeping.

Awaked by the noise, Mr. Williams seized his pistol, and snapped it at the Indian who first approached, but it missed fire. Mr. Williams was now seized, disarmed, bound, and kept standing, without his clothes, in the intense cold, nearly an hour.

His house was next plundered, and two of his children, together with a black female servant, were butchered before his eyes. The savages at length suffered his wife and five children to put on their clothes, after which he was himself allowed to dress, and prepare for a long and melancholy march.

The whole town around them was now on fire. Every house, but the one next to Mr. Williams', was consumed. This house is still standing; a hole cut by the savages in the door, and the marks of the bullets in the walls, are visible to this day. 1799

Having completed their work of destruction, in burning the town, and killing forty-seven persons, the enemy hastily retreated, taking with them one hundred of the inhabitants, among whom were Mr. Williams and his family.

The first night after their departure from Deerfield, the savages murdered Mr. Williams' servant, and on the day succeeding, finding Mrs. Williams unable to keep pace with the rest, plunged a hatchet into her head. She had recently borne an infant, and was not yet recovered. But her husband was not permitted to assist her. He himself was lame, bound, in sulks, threatened and nearly famished—but what were personal sufferings like these, and even greater than these, to the sight of a wife, under circumstances so tender, inhumanly butchered before his eyes! Before the journey was ended, seventeen others shared the melancholy fate of Mrs. Williams.

On their arrival in Canada, it may be added, Mr. Williams was treated with civility by the French. At the end of two years he was redeemed with fifty-seven others, and returned to

Deerfield, where, after twelve years' labour in the gospel, he entered into his rest.

X. In the spring of 1707, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, and New-Hampshire, fitted out an expedition against Port Royal, in Nova Scotia. The expedition, consisting of one thousand men, sailed from Nantucket in twenty-three transports, under convoy of the Deptford man of war, and the Province galley. After a short voyage, they arrived at Port Royal; but March, the commander of the expedition, though a brave man, being unfit to lead in an enterprise so difficult, little was done, beyond burning a few houses, and killing a few cattle.

While this unfortunate expedition was on foot, the frontiers were kept in constant alarm. Oyster River, Exeter, Kingston, and Dover, in New-Hampshire, Berwick, York, Wells, and Casco, in Maine, were attacked, and considerably damaged by the enemy.

XI. The colonies were now resolved on another attempt upon Canada. In 1708, Massachusetts petitioned Queen Anne for assistance, and she promised to send five regiments of regular troops. These, with twelve hundred men raised in Massachusetts and Rhode-Island, were to sail from Boston to Quebec.

A second division of one thousand eight hundred men, from colonies south of Rhode-Island, were to march against Montreal, by way of Champlain; but this project also failed, the land troops returning, after penetrating to Wood Creek, in consequence of learning that the naval armament, promised from England, had been directed to Portugal.

XII. The patience of the colonies was not yet exhausted. Another application was made to the Queen, and in July, 1710, Col. Nicholson came over with five frigates and a bomb ketch, for the purpose of reducing Port Royal. In this expedition, he was joined by five regiments of troops from New-England.

The armament, consisting of the above frigates, and between twenty and thirty transports, belonging to the colonies, sailed from Boston, September 18th. Or

24th, it reached Port Royal, which surrendered October 5th, and, in honour of Queen Anne, was called *Annapolis*.

Animated with his success, Nicholson soon after sailed for England, to solicit another expedition against Canada. Contrary to the expectations of the colonies, the ministry acceded to the proposal, and orders were issued to the northern colonies to get ready their quotas of men.

Sixteen days after these orders arrived, a fleet of men of war and transports, under command of Sir Hovenden Walker, with seven regiments of the duke of Marlborough's troops, and a battalion of marines, under Brigadier Gen. Hill, sailed into Boston. But the fleet had neither provisions nor pilots. Aided, however, by the prompt and active exertions of the colonies, on the 30th of July, the fleet, consisting of fifteen men of war, forty transports, and six store ships, with nearly seven thousand men, sailed from Boston for Canada.

Shortly after the departure of the fleet, general Nicholson proceeded from Albany towards Canada, at the head of four thousand men, from the colonies of Connecticut, New-York, and New-Jersey.

The fleet arrived in the St. Lawrence, Aug. 14th. In proceeding up the river, through the unskillfulness of the pilots, and by contrary winds, it was in imminent danger of entire destruction. On the 22d, about midnight, the seamen discovered that they were driven on the north shore, among islands and rocks. Eight or nine of the British transports, on board of which were about one thousand seven hundred officers and soldiers, were cast away, and nearly one thousand men were lost. Upon this disaster, no farther attempts were made to prosecute the expedition. The fleet sailed directly for England, and the provincial troops returned home. Gen. Nicholson, who had advanced to Lake George, hearing of the miscarriage of the expedition on the St. Lawrence, returned with the land forces, and abandoned the enterprise.

The failure of this expedition was unjustly imputed, by the mother country, wholly to New-England; nor did the colonies receive any credit for their vigorous exertions in raising men, and fitting out the fleet. The expedition was not, however, without a beneficial effect, as it probably prevented Annapolis from falling into the hands of the enemy.

XIII. The spring of 1712 opened with new depredations of the enemy upon the frontier settlements. Oyster River, Exeter, York, Wells, &c. were again attacked

and plundered. Many inhabitants in different parts of the country were murdered, although, in some portions of the colonies, one half of the militia were constantly on duty.

XIV. The northern colonies were not alone in the distresses of Queen Anne's war. Carolina, then the southern frontier of the American colonies, had her full share in its expenses and sufferings.

Before official intelligence had been received of the declaration of war by England against France and Spain, in 1702, although war had actually been declared, Gov. Moore, of the southern settlements in Carolina, proposed to the assembly of the colony an expedition against the Spanish settlement of St. Augustine, Florida.

Although assured of its easy conquest, and of being amply rewarded by its treasures of gold and silver, numbers of the more considerate in the assembly were opposed to the expedition. A majority, however, being in favour of it, two thousand pounds were voted, and one thousand two hundred men were raised, of whom one half were Indians—but the expedition entirely failed.

With the forces above named, and some merchant vessels, impressed as transports, Gov. Moore sailed for St. Augustine. The design was for Col. Daniel, an enterprising officer, to proceed by the inland passage, and to attack the town by land, with a party of militia and Indians; while Moore was to proceed by sea, and take possession of the harbour. Daniel advanced against the town, entered and plundered it, before the governour's arrival. The Spaniards, however, retired to the castle, with their principal riches, and with provisions for four months.

The governour, on his arrival, could effect nothing for want of artillery. In this emergency, Daniel was despatched to Jamaica for cannon, mortars, &c. During his absence, two large Spanish ships appearing off the harbour, Gov. Moore hastily raised the siege, abandoned his shipping, and made a precipitate retreat into Carolina. Col. Daniel, having no intelligence that the siege had been raised, on his return, stood in for the harbour, and narrowly escaped the ships of the enemy. In consequence of this rash and unfortunate enterprise, the colony was loaded with a debt of six thousand pounds,

which gave rise to the first paper currency in Carolina, and was the means of filling the colony with dissension and tumult.

XV. The failure of this expedition was soon after, in a measure, compensated by a successful war with the Apalachian Indians, who, in consequence of their connexion with the Spaniards, became insolent and hostile. Gov. Moore, with a body of white men and Indian allies, marched into the heart of their country, and compelled them to submit to the English.

All the towns of the tribes between the rivers Altamaha and Savannah were burnt, and between six hundred and eight hundred Indians were made prisoners.

XVI. Although this enterprise was successful, new dangers soon threatened the colony. Its invasion was attempted, 1707; by the French and Spaniards, in order to annex Carolina to Florida. The expedition, headed by Le Feboure, consisted of a French frigate, and four armed sloops, having about eight hundred men on board. Owing to the prompt and vigorous measures of Johnson, who had superseded Moore as governour, the enemy were repulsed, and the threatened calamity averted.

No sooner was the intended invasion rumoured abroad, than preparations were commenced to repel the enemy. The militia were mustered and trained, and the fortifications of Charleston and other places repaired. These preparations were scarcely completed, before the fleet of the enemy appeared. Some time elapsed, however, before they crossed the bar, which enabled the governour to alarm the surrounding country, and to call in great numbers of the militia.

At length, with a fair wind, the enemy passed the bar, and sent a summons to the governour to surrender. Four hours were allowed him to return his answer. But the governour informed the messenger that he did not wish one minute. On the reception of this answer, the enemy seemed to hesitate, and attempted nothing that day.

The day succeeding, a party of the enemy, landing on James Island, burnt a village by the river's side. Another party of one hundred and sixty landed at Wando Neck. The next day both these parties were dislodged—the latter party being surprised, and nearly all killed or taken prisoners.

This success so animated the Carolinians, that it was determined to attack the enemy by sea. This was attempted with force of six vessels under command of William Rhett; but on

his appearance, the enemy weighed anchor, and precipitately fled.

Some days succeeding this, Monsieur Arbuset appeared on the coast with a ship of force, and landed a number of men at Sewee Bay. Rhet sailed out against him, and at the same time Capt. Fenwick crossed the river, and marched to attack the enemy by land. After a brisk engagement, Fenwick took the enemy on land, prisoners, and Rhet succeeded in capturing the ship.

XVII. In 1710, a large number of Palatines, inhabitants of a Palatinate, a small territory in Germanay, whose governour or prince is called a Palatine, arrived and settled on the Roanoke, in Albemarle and Bath counties, within the boundaries of North Carolina. These were a great accession to the strength and numbers of the colony, which, although of sixty years standing, was exceedingly small.

The same year, near three thousand of the same people came to New-York. Some settled in that city, and built the old Lutheran church; others settled on Livingston's manor. Some went into Pennsylvania, and at subsequent periods were followed by many thousands of their countrymen.

Two years after the above settlers arrived in Carolina, and during Queen Anne's war, a plot was laid by the Corees and Tuscaroras, with other Indians tribes, to massacre the whole number. This plot was so far put in execution, that one hundred and seven settlers were butchered in their houses, in a single night. Information of their distress was speedily sent to Charleston; soon after which, Col. Barnwell, with six hundred militia and three hundred and fifty friendly Indians, explored their way through the intervening wilderness, and came to their relief. On his arrival, Col. B. surprised the Tuscaroras, killed three hundred of them, and made one hundred prisoners.

The surviving Indians fled to a town which had been fortified by the tribe; but here they were again attacked by Barnwell, who killed great numbers of them, and compelled the remainder to sue for peace. It is estimated that the Tuscaroras, in this war, lost one thousand of their number. The remainder of the tribe, early after the war, abandoned the

country, and became united with the Five Nations, which, since that time, have been called the *Six Nations*.

XVIII. The next year, March 31st, 1713, a treaty of peace was concluded at Utrecht, between England and France. This relieved the apprehensions of the northern part of the country, and put a welcome period to an expensive and distressing war. After the peace was known in America, the Eastern Indians sent in a flag and desired peace. The governour of Massachusetts, with his council, and with that of New-Hampshire, met them at Portsmouth, received their submission, and entered into terms of pacification.

By the above treaty between England and France, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia were ceded to Great Britain. It was also stipulated that "the subjects of France, inhabiting Canada, and other places, shall hereafter give no hindrance or molestation to the Five Nations, nor to the other nations of Indians who are friends to Great Britain." By the treaty also, the French relinquished all claim to the Five Nations, and to all parts of their territories, and as far as respected themselves, entitled the British crown to the sovereignty of the country.

XIX. The termination of Queen Anne's war gave peace to the northern colonies, but the contest with the Indians for some time continued to distress the Carolinians.

Scarcely had the people recovered from the above war with the Corees and Tuscaroras, before they were threatened with a calamity still greater and more general. The Yamosees, a powerful tribe of Indians, with all the Indian tribes from Florida to Cape Fear river, formed a conspiracy for the total extirpation of the Carolinians. The 15th of April, 1715, was fixed upon as the day of general destruction.—Owing, however, to the wisdom, despatch, and firmness of Governour Craven, and the blessing of Providence, the calamity was in a measure averted, and the colonies saved, though at the expense, during the war, of near four hundred of the inhabitants. The Yamosees were expelled the province, and took refuge among the Spaniards in Florida.

XX. In 1719, the government of Carolina, which till now had been proprietary, was changed, the charter was declared by the king's privy council to have been forfeited, and the colony, from this time, was taken under the roy

al protection, under which it continued till the American revolution.

The people had long been disgusted with the management of the proprietors, and were resolved, at all hazards, to execute their own laws, and defend the rights of the province. A subscription to this effect was drawn up, and generally signed.

On a meeting of the assembly, a committee was sent with this subscription to the governour, Robert Johnson, requesting him to accept the government of the province, under the king, instead of the proprietors.

Upon his refusal, the assembly chose Col. James Moore governour, under the crown, and on the 21st of December, 1719, the convention and militia marched to Charleston fort, and proclaimed Moore governour in his Majesty's name.

The Carolinians, having assumed the government, in behalf of the king, referred their complaints to the royal ear. On a full hearing of the case, the privy council adjudged that the proprietors had forfeited their charter. From this time, therefore, the colony, as stated above, was taken under the royal protection, under which it continued till the American revolution.

This change was followed, in 1729, by another nearly as important. This was an agreement between the proprietors and the crown, that the former should surrender to the crown their right and interest both to the government and soil, for the sum of seventeen thousand five hundred pounds sterling. This agreement being carried into effect, the province was divided into North and South Carolina, each province having a distinct governour under the crown of England.

XXI. It has been stated that peace was concluded by Massachusetts and New-Hampshire, with the eastern Indians, soon after the pacification at Utrecht, in 1713. This peace, however, was of short duration, dissatisfaction arising on the part of the Indians, because of the encroachments of the English on their lands, and because trading houses were not erected for the purchase of their commodities.

The governour of Massachusetts promised them redress; but the general court not carrying his stipulations into execution, the Indians became irritated, and, at the same time, being excited by the French Jesuits, were roused to war, which, in July, 1722, became general, and continued to distress the eastern settlements until 1725.

The tribes engaged in the war, were the Norridgewocks, Penobscots, St. Francois, Cape Sable, and St. John Indians. In June, 1725, hostilities ceased, soon after which a treaty was signed by the Indians, and was afterwards ratified by commissioners from Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, and Nova Scotia. This treaty was greatly applauded, and under it, owing to the more pacifick feelings of the Indians, and the more faithful observance of its stipulations by the English, the colonies experienced unusual tranquillity for a long time.

XXII. The settlement of **GEORGIA** was begun in 1733, and was named after king George II. of England, who was then on the throne. In the settlement of Georgia, two objects were principally in view—the relief of indigent inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, and the greater security of the Carolinas.

The charter was granted to twenty-one persons, under the title of trustees, and passed the seals June 9th, 1732. The first settlers, one hundred and sixteen in number, embarked from England, in November of the same year, under General Oglethorpe. They landed at Charleston, whence they repaired to Savannah river, and commenced the town of that name.

The colony did not flourish for many years. In their regulations for its management, the trustees enacted that all lands granted by them to settlers should revert back, in case of the failure of male succession; although certain privileges were to be allowed to widows and daughters. At the same time all trade with the Indians was prohibited, unless by virtue of special license. The use of negroes and the importation of rum were absolutely forbidden.

Although the trustees were actuated by the purest motives—by principles of humanity, and a regard to the health and morals of the inhabitants, this system of regulations was unfitted to the condition of the poor settlers, and was highly injurious to their increase and prosperity.

Emigrants, however, continued to arrive. The first adventurers being poor and unenterprising, a more active and efficient race was desirable. To induce such to settle in the colony, eleven towns were laid out in shares of fifty acres each; one of which was offered to each new settler. Upon this, large numbers of Swiss, Scotch, and Germans, became adventurers to the colony. Within three years from the first settlement, one thousand four hundred planters had arrived.

To aid the colony, parliament made several grants of money; individuals also gave considerable sums for the same purpose:

owing, however, to the impolitick regulations of the trustees, the colony maintained only a feeble existence.

XXIII. Upon the declaration of war by England against Spain, Oglethorpe was appointed, 1740, to the chief command in South Carolina and Georgia. Soon after his appointment, he projected an expedition against St. Augustine. Aided by Virginia and Carolina, he marched at the head of more than two thousand men, for Florida, and after taking two small Spanish forts, Diego and Moosa, he sat down before St. Augustine. Capt. Price, with several twenty gun ships, assisted by sea; but after all their exertions, the general was forced to raise the siege, and return with considerable loss.

XXIV. Two years after, 1742, the Spaniards invaded Georgia in turn. A Spanish armament, consisting of thirty-two sail, with three thousand men, under command of Don Manuel de Monteano, sailed from St. Augustine, and arrived in the river Altamaha. The expedition, although fitted out at great expense, failed of accomplishing its object.

General Oglethorpe was at this time at fort Simons. Finding himself unable to retain possession of it, having but about seven hundred men, he spiked his cannon, and, destroying his military stores, retreated to his head-quarters at Fredrica.

On the first prospect of an invasion, General Oglethorpe had applied to the governour of South Carolina for assistance, but the Carolinians, fearing for the safety of their own territory, and not approving of general Oglethorpe's management in his late expedition against St. Augustine, declined furnishing troops, but voted supplies.

In this state of danger and perplexity, the general resorted to stratagem. A French soldier belonging to his army had deserted to the enemy. Fearing the consequences of their learning his weakness, he devised a plan by which to destroy the credit of any information that the deserter might give.

With this view, he wrote a letter to the French deserter in the Spanish camp, addressing him as if he were a spy of the English. This letter he bribed a Spanish captive to deliver, in which he directed the deserter to state to the Spaniards, that he was in a weak and defenceless condition, and to urge them on to an attack.

Should he not be able, however, to persuade them to this, he

wished him to induce them to continue three days longer at their quarters, in which time he expected two thousand men, and six British men of war, from Carolina. The above letter, as was intended, was delivered to the Spanish general, instead of the deserter, who immediately put the latter in irons.

A council of war was called, and while deliberating upon the measures which should be taken, three supply ships, which had been voted by Carolina, appeared in sight. Imagining these to be the men of war alluded to in the letter, the Spaniards, in great haste, fired the fort, and embarked, leaving behind them several cannon, and a quantity of provisions. By this artful, but unjustifiable expedient, the country was relieved of its invaders; and Georgia, and probably a great part of South Carolina, saved from ruin.

XXV. In 1752, the colony, continuing in a languishing condition, although parliament had at different times given them nearly one hundred thousand pounds, and many complaints having been made against the system of regulations adopted by the trustees, they surrendered their charter to the crown, upon which the government became regal. In 1755, a general court was established.

XXVI. March, 29th, 1744, *Great Britain, under George II. declared war against France and Spain.* The most important event of this war, in America, was the capture of Louisburg, from the French, by the New-England colonies, under command of Sir William Pepperell.

Louisburg was a town belonging to the French in the island of Cape Breton; fortified at the expense of five million and a half of dollars, and, on account, of its strength was sometimes called "The Gibraltar of America."

The acquisition of this place was deemed eminently important to New-England, since, while in possession of the French, it had furnished a safe and convenient retreat to such privateers as disturbed and captured the inhabitants of the colonies employed in the fisheries.

Of the forces, Massachusetts raised 3250; Connecticut 516; Rhode-Island and New-Hampshire 300 each. The naval force consisted of 12 ships and some smaller vessels. On the 24th of March, the fleet, with the troops on board, sailed from Boston, and arrived at Louisburg the last of April; soon after

which, they were joined by Commodore Warren, in the *Superb*, of 60 guns, and others of his squadron.

The troops being landed, commenced the siege. For 14 nights the army were occupied in drawing their cannon, shot, &c. over a deep swamp, two miles in extent, towards the place.

In the mean time, Commodore Warren captured the *Vigilant*, a French ship of 74 guns, having on board 560 men, and great quantities of military stores.

The siege against the town continued till the 15th of June, when the French commander requested that hostilities might cease. On the 17th, the city of *Louisburg*, and the island of *Cape Breton*, were surrendered to his Britannick majesty.

Thus successfully terminated a daring expedition, which had been undertaken without the knowledge of the mother country. The acquisition of the fortress of *Louisburg* was as useful and important to the colonies, and to the British empire, as its reduction was surprising to that empire, and mortifying to the court of France.

Besides the stores and prizes which fell into the hands of the English, which were estimated at little less than a million sterling, security was given to the colonies in their fisheries; *Nova Scotia* was preserved, and the trade and fisheries of France nearly ruined.

XXVII. The capture of *Louisburg* roused the court of France to seek revenge. Under the duke *D'Anville*, a nobleman of great courage, an armament was sent to America, 1746, consisting of forty ships of war, fifty-six transports, with three thousand five hundred men, and forty thousand stands of arms for the use of the French and Indians in Canada. The object of this expedition was to recover possession of *Cape Breton*, and to attack the colonies. A merciful Providence, however, averted the blow, and by delaying the fleet, and afterwards disabling it in a storm blasted the hopes of the enemy.

Great was the consternation of the colonies, when the news arrived that the French fleet was near the American coast, and greatly increased, on learning that no English fleet was in quest of it.

Several ships of this formidable French fleet were damaged by storms; others were lost, and one forced to return to *Brest*, on account of a malignant disease among her crew. Ten or three only of the ships, with a few of the transports, arrived at *Chebeco*, now *Halifax*. Here the admiral died, through mor-

tification; or, as some say, by poison. The vice-admiral came to a similar tragical death by running himself through the body. That part of the fleet that arrived, sailed with a view to attack Annapolis, but a storm scattered them, and prevented the accomplishment of this object.

XXVIII. In April, 1748, preliminaries of peace were signed between France and England, at Aix-la-Chapelle, soon after which, hostilities ceased. The definitive treaty was signed in October. Prisoners on all sides were to be released without ransom, and all conquests made during the war were to be mutually restored.

Notes.

XXIX. *Manners of the Colonists.* The colonies were now peopled with inhabitants, by far the greater part of whom were born and educated in America. And although the first settlers were collected from most, or all, the countries of Europe, and emigrants from various nations continued to flock to America, still we may observe, during this period, a gradual assimilation of national manners and character. The peculiarities of each class became less distinct by intercourse with the others, and every succeeding generation seemed to exhibit, less strikingly, those traits which distinguished the preceding.

Although this is true with respect to the American colonies generally, there were some exceptions. Some villages, or territories, being settled exclusively by emigrants speaking a different language from that generally spoken—as the Germans, for example—or entertaining some peculiar religious notions—as the Quakers—still preserved their own peculiar manners.

But in attempting to ascribe some general character to the people of the colonies during this period, we might consider them, as during our second period, on the whole, exhibiting three varieties; viz. the rigid puritan English of the north—the Dutch in New-York—and the luxurious English of the south. The austerity of the north was, however, much relaxed. The elegant varieties of life, which before had been prohibited, were tolerated, and the refinements of polished society

appeared among the higher classes. The strong lines of Dutch manners in New-York were slowly disappearing under an English government, and by means of the settlement of English among them. The manners of the south were assuming an aspect of more refinement, particularly among the higher classes—but showed little other change.

XXX. Religion. During this period, the spirit of religious bigotry and intolerance may be observed to have abated in a very considerable degree. The conduct of those sects, which had called forth those severe and unjustifiable restrictions upon the freedom of religious worship, had become less offensive and exceptionable; and at the close of this period, religious persecution had ceased in all the colonies, and the rights of conscience were generally recognized.

In 1692, the *Mennonites* were introduced into Pennsylvania, and settled at Germantown. Their increase, however, has been small.

In 1719, the *Tinkers*, or General Baptists, arrived at Philadelphia, and dispersed themselves into several parts of Pennsylvania.

In 1741, the *Moravians* were introduced into America by Count Zinzendorf, and settled at Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. Regularity, industry, ingenuity, and economy, are characteristic of this people. They have considerably increased, and are a respectable body of Christians.

The *German Lutherans* were first introduced into the American colonies during this period, and settled principally in Pennsylvania and New-York.

Episcopacy was considerably extended during this period. In 1693, it was introduced into New-York; into New-Jersey and Rhode-Island in 1702; into South Carolina in 1703, by law; in Connecticut in 1704.

In 1708, the Saybrook Platform was formed by a Synod, composed of congregational ministers, under authority of the legislature of Connecticut.

About the year 1737, a revival of religion very extensively prevailed in New-England. At this time great numbers united themselves to the church, and testified by their conduct through life the genuineness of their profession.

The celebrated Whitfield came to America about the year 1740, and produced great religious excitement by his singular powers of pulpit eloquence. He did not found any peculiar sect in this country, although he gave rise to that of the *Calvinistic Methodists* in England.

XXXI Trade and Commerce. Although the trade of the colonies began to feel the restrictions imposed upon it by the mother country, still it steadily increased during this period.

From the very commencement of the colonies, the mother country was not without her jealousies respecting their increase in population, trade, and manufactures. Inquiries on these points were instituted, and opportunities sought to keep in check the spirit of colonial enterprise. Laws were enacted from time to time, designed and calculated not only to make the colonies depend on the mother country for her manufactures, but also to limit their trade and commerce, and keep them in safe subjection to England.

As illustrating this course of policy, we may notice several laws of parliament. In 1732, an act was passed, prohibiting "the exportation of hats out of the plantations of America, and to restrain the number of apprentices taken by hat makers." So also the act of 1750, prohibited, on penalty of two hundred pounds, "the erection of any mill for slitting, or rolling of iron, or any plating forge to work with a tilt hammer; or any furnace for making steel in any of the colonies." At the same time, encouragement was given to export pig and bar iron to England for her manufactories. In like manner was prohibited the exportation from one province to another by water, and even the carriage by land, on horseback, or in a cart, of all wools and woollen goods of the produce of America. The colonies were also compelled by law to procure many articles from England, which they could have purchased twenty per cent. cheaper in other markets.

But notwithstanding these restrictions, trade and commerce gradually and steadily increased. To England, the colonies exported lumber of all sorts, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, oil, rosin, copper ore, pig and bar iron, whale fins, tobacco, rice, fish, indigo, flax-seed, beeswax, raw silk, &c. They also built many vessels which were sold in the mother country.

But the importation of goods from England, in consequence of the course pursued by the British government, was still much greater than the amount of exports to England. In 1728, sir William Keith stated that the colonies then consumed one sixth part of all the woollen manufactures exported from Great Britain, and more than double that value in linen and calicoes; also great quantities of English manufactured silks, small wares, household furniture, trinkets, and a very considerable value in East India goods. From 1739 to 1756, this importation of

goods from England amounted to one million of pounds sterling annually, on an average.

But if the amount of imports from Great Britain was thus more than the colonies exported thither, they would fall in debt to England. How did they pay this balance of trade against them? It was done by gold and silver, obtained chiefly from the West-India settlements, to which they exported lumber, fish of an inferior quality, beef, pork, butter, horses, poultry, and other live stock, an inferior kind of tobacco, corn, cider, apples, cabbages, onions, &c. They built also many small vessels, which found a ready market.

The cod and whale fisheries were becoming considerable; they were principally carried on by New-England. The cod-fish were sold in Spain, France, England, the West-Indies, &c. and the money obtained for them aided the colonies in paying the balance of trade against them in England.

XXXII. Agriculture. Agriculture, during this period, was greatly improved and extended. Immense tracts of forests were cleared, and more enlightened modes of husbandry were introduced. The number of articles produced by agriculture was also increased.

The colonies now not only raised a sufficient supply of food for their own use, but their exports became great. Wheat and other English grain were the principal products of the middle colonies; grain, beef, pork, horses, butter, cheese, &c. were the chief products of the northern colonies; tobacco, wheat, and rice, were the principal products of the south.

In the south, also, large numbers of swine ran wild in the forests, living upon mast. These were taken, salted down, and exported to a considerable extent.

XXXIII. Arts and Manufactures. Under the head of commerce, we have noticed the obstacles interposed by Great Britain, to the progress of arts and manufactures. Notwithstanding these, however, the coarser kinds of cutlery, some coarse cloths, both linen and woolen, hats, paper, shoes, household furniture, farming utensils, &c. were manufactured to a considerable extent; not sufficient, however, to supply the inhabitants. All these manufactories were on a small scale; cloths were made, in some families, for their own consumption.

The art of printing made considerable progress, during this period. A newspaper, the first in North America, called *The Boston Weekly News-Letter*, was established in 1704. Boston.

the close of this period, ten others were established—four in New-England; two in New-York; two in Pennsylvania; one in South Carolina; and one in Maryland. The number of books published was also considerable, although they were executed in a coarse style, and were generally books of devotion, or for the purposes of education.

XXXIV. Population. At the expiration of our second period, we estimated the population of the English colonies in America, at 200,000 souls. About the close of our third period, Franklin calculated that there were then one million or upwards, and that scarce 80,000 had been brought over sea.

XXXV. Education. The southern colonies continued to treat the subject of education differently from the northern colonies, in this respect; in the north, one of the first objects of legislation was to provide for the education of *all classes*; in the south, the education of the higher classes only was an object of publick attention.

The first publick institution for the purposes of education, which succeeded in the south, was that of William and Mary College in Virginia, established in 1692, by the sovereigns whose names it bears.

Yale College, in Connecticut, was commenced in 1700—eleven of the principal ministers of the neighbouring towns, who had been appointed to adopt such measures as they should deem expedient, on the subject of a college—agreeing to found one in the colony. The next year, the legislature granted them a charter. The college was begun at Saybrook, where was held the first commencement, in 1702. In 1717, it was removed to New-Haven, where it became permanently established. It was named after the Hon. Elisha Yale, governor of the East India Company, who was its principal benefactor.

The College, at Princeton, New-Jersey, called "Nassau Hall," was first founded by charter from John Hamilton, Esq. president of the council, about the year 1738, and was enlarged by Gov. Belcher, in 1747.

Reflections.

XXXVI. The history of this period presents the North American Colonies to our view, at the same time that they were visited with cruel and desolating wars, still advancing in popu-

lation, extending their commerce, forming new settlements, enlarging the boundaries of their territory, and laying wider and deeper the foundations of a future nation. And, while we look back, with admiration, upon the happy spirit which carried our ancestors through scenes so trying, and enabled them to reap prosperity from the crimsoned fields of battle and bloodshed, let us be thankful that our lot is cast in a happier day; and that instead of sharing in the perils of feeble colonies, we enjoy the protection and privileges of a free and powerful nation.

In addition to the reflections subjoined to the account which we have given of the "Salem witchcraft," we may add another respecting the danger of *popular delusion*. In that portion of our history, we see a kind of madness rising up, and soon stretching its influence over a whole community. And such too is the pervading power of the spell, that the wise and ignorant, the good and bad, are alike subject to its control, and for the time, alike incapable of judging, or reasoning aright.

Now, whenever we see a community divided into parties, and agitated by some general excitement—when we feel ourselves borne along on one side or the other, by the popular tide, let us inquire whether we are not acting under the influence of a delusion, which a few years, perhaps a few months, or days, may dispel and expose.—Nor, at such a time, let us regard our sincerity, or our consciousness of integrity, or the seeming clearness and certainty of our reasonings, as furnishing an absolute assurance that, after all, we do not mistake, and that our opponents are not right.

Another reflection of some importance, and one that may serve to guard us against censuring too severely the wise and good, is suggested by this account of the "Salem witchcraft." It is, that the best men are liable to err. We should not, therefore, condemn, nor should we withhold our charity from those who fall into occasional error, provided their characters are, in other respects, such as lay claim to our good opinion.

UNITED STATES.

Period XV.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.



French and Indian War.

Extending from the Declaration of War by England against France, 1756, to the Commencement of Hostilities by Great Britain against the American Colonies, in the Battle of Lexington, 1775.

Section I. The war, which ended in the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, had been highly injurious to the general prosperity of his Majesty's Colonies in America ;

and the return of peace found them in a state of impoverishment and distress. Great losses had been sustained in their commerce, and many of their vessels had been seized on the coast by privateers. Bills of credit, to the amount of several millions, had been issued to carry on the war, which they were now unable to redeem, and the losses of men in various expeditions against the enemy had seriously retarded the increase of population.

The expenses of the northern colonies, including New-England and New-York, during the war, were estimated at no less than one million pounds sterling. Massachusetts alone is said to have paid half this sum, and to have expended nearly four hundred thousand pounds, in the expedition against Cape Breton. The expenses of Carolina for the war in that quarter, were not less in proportion.

To supply the deficiency of money, bills of credit were issued to the amount of several millions. The bills issued by Massachusetts, during two or three years of the war, amounted to between two and three millions currency; while at the time of their emission, five or six hundred pounds were equal to only one hundred pounds sterling. Before the complete redemption of these bills, says Dr. Trumbull, in those colonies where their credit was best supported, the depreciation was nearly twenty for one.

The losses sustained by the colonies, in the fall of many of their bravest men, during this and the last Indian war, were severely felt. From 1722 to 1749, a period of twenty-seven years, the losses of Massachusetts and New-Hampshire equalled the whole increase of their numbers, whereas, in the natural course of population, their numbers would have more than doubled.

Such, in few words, was the general state of the colonies at the close of this war. The return of peace was hailed as the harbinger of better days, and the enterprising spirit of the people soon exerted itself to repair the losses which had been sustained. Commerce, therefore, again flourished; population increased; settlements were extended; and publick credit revived.

M. Scarcely, however, had the colonies time to reap the benefits of peace, before the prospect was clouded, and the sound of approaching war filled the land with general anxiety and distress. After an interval of only a few

eight years, from 1748 to May 18th, 1756, Great Britain, under George II. formally declared war against France, which declaration was reciprocated on the ninth of June, by a similar declaration on the part of France, under Louis XV. against Great Britain.

The *general* cause, leading to this war, commonly called the "*French and Indian War*," was the alleged encroachments of the French, upon the frontiers of the colonies in America, belonging to the English Crown.

These encroachments were made upon Nova Scotia in the east, which had been ceded to Great Britain, by the 12th article of the treaty of Utrecht, but to a considerable part of which the French laid claim, and, in several places, were erecting fortifications. In the north and west, they were settling and fortifying Crown Point, and, in the west, were not only attempting to complete a line of forts from the head of the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi, but were encroaching far on Virginia.

The circumstance which served to *open the war*, was the alleged intrusion of the *Ohio Company* upon the territory of the French. This company consisted of a number of influential men, from London and Virginia, who had obtained a charter grant of six hundred thousand acres of land, on and near the river Ohio, for the purpose of carrying on the fur trade with the Indians, and of settling the country.

The governour of Canada had early intelligence of the transactions of this company. Fearing that their plan would deprive the French of the advantages of the fur trade, and prevent communications between Canada and Louisiana, he wrote to the governour of New-York and Pennsylvania, claiming the country east of the Ohio to the Alleghanies, and forbidding the further encroachments of the English traders.

As yet, the Pennsylvanians had principally managed the trade with the Indians. But, being now about to be deprived of it, by the Ohio Company, who were opening a road to the Potomac, they excited the fears of the Indians, lest their lands should be taken from them, and gave early intelligence to the French, of the designs and transactions of the Company.

The French governour soon manifested his hostile determi-

nation, by seizing several of the English traders, and carrying them to a French port on the south of Lake Erie.—The Twightwees, a tribe of Indians in Ohio, near Miami river, among whom the English had been trading, resented the seizure, and by way of retaliation, took several French traders, and sent them to Pennsylvania.

In the mean time, a communication was opened along the French Creek and Alleghany river, between Fort Presqu' Île, on Lake Erie, and the Ohio; and French troops were stationed at convenient distances, secured by temporary fortifications.

The Ohio Company, thus threatened with the destruction of their trade, were now loud in their complaints. Dinwiddie, lieut. governour of Virginia, to whom these complaints were addressed, laid the subject before the assembly, which ordered a messenger to be despatched to the French commandant on the Ohio, to demand the reasons of his hostile conduct, and to summon the French to evacuate their forts in that region.

III. The person entrusted with this service was *George Washington*, who, at the early age of twenty-one, thus stepped forth in the publick cause, and began that line of services, which ended in the independence of his country.

The service to which Washington was now appointed, was both difficult and dangerous; the place of his destination being above four hundred miles distant, two hundred of which lay through a trackless desert, inhabited by Indians. He arrived in safety, however, and delivered a letter from Gov. Dinwiddie to the commandant. Having received a written answer, and secretly taken the dimensions of the fort, he returned. The reply of the commandant to Gov. Dinwiddie was, that he had taken possession of the country, under the direction of the governour-general of Canada, to whom he would transmit his letter, and whose orders only he would obey.

IV. The British ministry, on being made acquainted with the claims, conduct, and determination of the French, without a formal declaration of war, instructed the Virginians to resist their encroachments, by force of arms.

Accordingly, a regiment was raised in Virginia, which was joined by an independent company from South Carolina, and with this force, Washington, who was appointed to command the expedition, and was now raised from the rank of major to that of colonel, marched early in April, 1754, towards the Great Meadows, lying within the disputed territories, for the purpose of expelling the French. The enterprise of Washington and his troops was highly creditable to them, but the French forces being considerably superiour, he was obliged to capitulate, with the privilege, however, of returning with his troops to Virginia.

On his arrival at the Great Meadows, he learned that the French had dispossessed some Virginians of a fortification, which the latter were erecting for the Ohio Company, at the confluence of the Alleghany and Monongahela, and were engaged in completing it, for their own use. He also learned, that a detachment from that place, then on its march towards the Great Meadows, had encamped for the night, in a low and retired situation.

Under the guidance of some friendly Indians, and under cover of a dark and rainy night, this party he surprised and captured. Having erected, at the Great Meadows, a small stockade fort, afterwards called Fort Necessity, he proceeded with his troops, reinforced by troops from New-York, and others from South Carolina, to nearly four hundred men, towards the French fort *De Quene*, now Pittsburg, with the intention of dislodging the enemy. Hearing, however, that the enemy were approaching, he judged it prudent to retire to Fort Necessity.

Here the enemy, one thousand five hundred strong, under the command of M. de Villiers, soon appeared and commenced a furious attack on the fort. After an engagement of several hours, de Villiers demanded a parley, and offered terms of capitulation. These terms were rejected; but during the night, July 4th, articles were signed, by which Washington was permitted, upon surrendering the fort, to march with his troops, unmolested, to Virginia.

Such was the beginning of open hostilities, which were succeeded by a series of other hostilities characterized by the spirit and manner of war, although the formal declaration of war was not made until 1756, two years after, as already mentioned.

V. The British ministry, perceiving war to be inevitable, recommended to the British colonies in America, to unite in some scheme for their common defence. Accordingly, a convention of delegates from Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, Rhode-Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, with the lieut. governour and council of New-York, was held at Albany, this year, 1754, and a plan of union adopted, resembling, in several of its features, the present constitution of the United States.

But the plan met with the approbation, neither of the Provincial Assemblies, nor the King's Council. By the former, it was rejected, because it gave too much power to the crown, and by the latter, because it gave too much power to the people.

According to this plan, a grand council was to be formed of members chosen by the provincial assemblies, and sent from all the colonies; which council, with a governour general, appointed by the crown, and having a negative voice, should be empowered to make general laws, to raise money, in all the colonies for their defence, to call forth troops, regulate trade, lay duties, &c. &c.

The plan, thus matured, was approved and signed, on the fourth of July, the day that Washington surrendered Fort Mifflin, and twenty-two years before the declaration of Independence, by all the delegates, excepting those from Connecticut, who objected to the negative voice of the governour general.

One circumstance, in the history of this plan, deserves here to be recorded, as evincing the dawning spirit of the revolution. Although the plan was rejected by the provincial assemblies, they declared, without reserve, that if it were adopted, they would undertake to defend themselves from the French, without any assistance from Great Britain. They required but to be left to employ their supplies in their own way, to effect their security and predominance.

The mother country was too jealous to trust such powers with the Americans, but she proposed another plan, designed to lay a foundation for the perpetual dependence and slavery of the colonies. This plan was, that the governours, with one or more of their council, should form a convention to concert measures for the general defence, to erect fortifications, raise men, &c. &c. with power to draw upon the British treasury to defray all charges; which charges should be reimbursed

ed by taxes upon the colonies, imposed by acts of parliament. But to allow the British government the right of taxation—to lay the colonies under the obligations of a debt to be thus liquidated—to subject themselves to the rapacity of king's collectors, we scarcely need say, was a proposal which met with universal disapprobation.

VI. Early in the spring of 1755, preparations were made, by the colonies, for vigorous exertions against the enemy. Four expeditions were planned. One against the French in Nova Scotia; a *second* against the French on the Ohio; a *third* against Crown Point; and a *fourth* against Niagara.

VII. The expedition against *Nova Scotia*, consisting of three thousand men, chiefly from Massachusetts, was led by Gen. Monckton and Gen. Winslow. With these troops, they sailed from Boston, May 20th, and on the 1st of June, arrived at Chignecto, on the bay of Fundy. After being joined by three hundred British troops and a small train of artillery, they proceeded against fort Beau Sejour, which, after four days investment, surrendered.

The name of the fort was now changed to that of Cumberland. From this place Gen. Monckton proceeded further into the country, took the other forts in possession of the French, and disarmed the inhabitants. By this successful expedition, the English possessed themselves of the whole country of Nova Scotia, a part of which, as already noticed, the French claimed; its tranquillity was restored and placed upon a permanent basis.

In this whole expedition, the English took but twenty men. Large quantities of provisions and military stores fell into their hands, with a number of valuable cannon.

The French force in Nova Scotia being subdued, a difficult question occurred, respecting the disposal to be made of the inhabitants. Fearing that they might join the French in Canada, whom they had before furnished with intelligence, quarters, and provisions, it was determined to disperse them among the English colonies. Under this order, one thousand nine hundred were thus dispersed.

VIII. The expedition against the French, on the Ohio, was led by Gen. Braddock, a British officer, who

commenced his march from Virginia, in June, with about two thousand men. Apprehensive that Fort du Quesne, against which he was proceeding, might be reinforced, Braddock, with one thousand two hundred selected troops, hastened his march, leaving Col. Dunbar to follow more slowly, with the other troops and the heavy baggage.

On the 8th of July, Braddock had advanced sixty miles forward of Col. Dunbar, and within twelve or fourteen miles of Fort du Quesne. Here he was advised by his officers to proceed with caution, and was earnestly entreated by Col. Washington, his aid, to permit him to precede the army, and guard against surprise. Too haughty and self-confident to receive advice, Braddock, without any knowledge of the condition of the enemy, continued to press towards the fort. About twelve o'clock, July 9th, when within seven miles of the fort, he was suddenly attacked by a body of French and Indians.

Although the enemy did not exceed five hundred, yet, after an action of three hours, Braddock, under whom five horses had been killed, was mortally wounded, and his troops defeated. The loss of the English army was sixty-four out of sixty-five officers, and about one half of the privates.

This unfortunate defeat of Gen. Braddock is to be ascribed to his imprudence and too daring intrepidity. Had he attended to those precautions which were recommended to him, he would not have been thus ambuscaded; or had he wisely retreated from a concealed enemy, and scoured the thicket with his cannon, the melancholy catastrophe might have been avoided. But, obstinately riveted to the spot on which he was first attacked, he vainly continued his attempt to form his men in regular order, although, by this means, a surer prey to the enemy, until being himself wounded, he could no longer be accessary to the destruction of human life.

A remarkable fact in the history of this affair remains to be told. Gen. Braddock held the provincial troops in great contempt. Consequently, he kept the Virginians, and other provincials, who were in the action, in the rear. Yet, although equally exposed with the rest, far from being affected with the fears that disordered the regular troops, they stood firm and

unbroken, and, under Col. Washington, covered the retreat of the regulars, and saved them from total destruction.

The retreat of the army, after Braddock was wounded, was precipitate. No pause was made until the rear division was met. This division, on its junction with the other, was seized with the same spirit of flight with the retreating, and both divisions proceeded to Fort Cumberland, a distance of nearly one hundred and twenty miles from the place of action.

Had the troops, even here, recovered their spirits and returned, success might still have crowned the expedition. At least, the army might have rendered the most important service to the cause, by preventing the devastations and inhuman murders, perpetrated by the French and Indians, during the summer, on the western borders of Virginia and Pennsylvania. But, instead of adopting a course so salutary and important, Col. Dunbar, leaving the sick and wounded at Cumberland, marched with his troops to Philadelphia.

IX. The expedition against *Crown Point* was led by Gen. William Johnson, a member of the council of New-York, and although it failed as to its main object, yet its results diffused exultation through the American colonies, and dispelled the gloom which followed Braddock's defeat.

The army, under Johnson, arrived at the south end of Lake George, the latter part of August. While here, intelligence was received that a body of the enemy, two thousand in number, had landed at Southbay, now *Whitehall*, under command of Baron Dieskau, and were marching towards Fort Edward, for the purpose of destroying the provisions and military stores there.

At a council of war, held on the morning of Sept. 8th, it was resolved to detach a party to intercept the French, and save the fort. This party consisted of twelve hundred men, commanded by Col. Ephraim Williams of Deerfield, Massachusetts. Unfortunately, this detachment was surprised by Dieskau, who was lying in ambush for them. After a most signal slaughter, in which Col. Williams and Hendrick, a renowned Mohawk sachem, and many other officers fell, the detachment was obliged to retreat.

The firing was heard in the camp of Johnson, and as it seemed to approach nearer and nearer, it was naturally

conjectured that the English troops were repulsed. The best preparations which the time allowed, were made to receive the advancing foe. Dieskau, with his troops, soon appeared and commenced a spirited attack.

They were received, however, with so much intrepidity—the cannon and musquetry did so much execution among their ranks, that the enemy retired in great disorder, having experienced a signal defeat. The loss of the French was not less than eight hundred, Dieskau estimated them himself at one thousand, and this loss was rendered still more severe to the French, by a mortal wound which this distinguished officer himself received, and in consequence of which he fell into the hands of the English. The loss of the English did not much exceed two hundred.

Few events of no greater magnitude leave stronger impressions than resulted from the battle of Lake George. Following as it did the discomfiture of Braddock, it served to restore the honour of the British arms, and the tone of the public mind.

At the time it was meditated to send a detachment under Col. Williams, to intercept Dieskau, the number of men proposed was mentioned to Hendrick, the Mohawk chief, and his opinion asked. He replied, "If they are to fight, they are too few: if they are to be killed, they are too many." The number was accordingly increased. Gen. Johnson proposed also to divide the detachment into three parties. Upon this, Hendrick took three sticks, and putting them together, said to him, "Put these together, and you cannot break them; take them one by one, and you will break them easily." The hint succeeded, and Hendrick's sticks saved many of the party, and probably the whole army from destruction.

Early in the action, Gen. Johnson was wounded, and Gen. Lyman succeeded to the command, which he held through the day. To this gentleman's gallant exertions, the success of the day, under Providence, was chiefly to be ascribed. Yet it is remarkable, that Gen. Johnson made no mention of Gen. Lyman in his official letter, announcing the intelligence of the victory. The ambition of Johnson was too great, and his avarice too greedy, to acknowledge the merits of a rival. Gen. Johnson was created a baronet, and parliament voted him five thousand pounds sterling, in consideration of his success. The

reward of Gen. Lyman was the esteem and honour of the people among whom he lived.

Among the wounded of the French, as already stated, was the Baron Dieskau. He had received a ball through his leg, and being unable to follow his retreating army, was found by an English soldier, resting upon the stump of a tree, with scarcely an attendant. Dieskau, apprehensive for his safety, was feeling for his watch, in order to give it to the soldier, when the man, suspecting that he was feeling for a pistol, levelled his gun, and wounded him in the hips. He was carried to the camp, and treated with great kindness. From the camp he was taken to Albany and New-York, whence, some time after, he sailed for England, where he died. He was a superior officer, possessed of honourable feelings, and adorned with highly polished manners. One stain, however, attaches to his character. Before his engagement with Col. Williams' corps, he gave orders to his troops neither to give nor take quarter.

X. The expedition against *Niagara* was committed to Gov. Shirley of Massachusetts, whose force amounted to two thousand five hundred men. But the season was too far advanced, before his preparations were completed, to effect any thing of importance.—After proceeding to Oswego, on Lake Ontario, the army being poorly supplied with provisions, and the rainy season approaching, the expedition was abandoned, and the troops returned to Albany. Thus ended the campaign of 1755.

XI. In the spring of the ensuing year, 1756, Gov. Shirley was succeeded by Gen. Abercrombie, who was appointed to command, until the arrival of the earl of Loudon, commander in chief of all his majesty's forces in America.

The hostilities of the two preceding years had been carried on without any formal proclamation of war; but this year, June 9th, as already stated, war was declared by Great Britain against France, and soon after, by France against Great Britain, in turn.

The plan of operations for the campaign of '56 embraced the attack of *Niagara* and *Crown Point*, which were still in possession of the French. Both these places were of great importance; the former being the connect-

ing link in the line of fortifications between Canada and Louisiana; and the latter commanding Lake Champlain, and guarding the only passage, at that time, into Canada. But important as were these posts, the reduction of neither was this year accomplished, nor even attempted, owing, chiefly, to the great delays of those who held the chief command.

Troops were raised for the expedition against Crown Point, amounting to seven thousand, the command of whom was assigned to major-general Winslow, of Massachusetts. But his march was delayed by obstacles ascribed to the improvidence of Abercrombie.

After the mortal wound received by Dieskau, at the battle of Lake George, the Marquis de Montcalm, an able and enterprising officer, succeeded to the command of the French forces. In the month of August, this officer, with eight thousand regulars, Canadians and Indians, invested the fort at Oswego, on the south side of Lake Ontario,—one of the most important posts held by the English in America,—and in a few days took it. On the receipt of this intelligence, lord Loudon, who had arrived in Albany, and entered upon the command, despatched orders to Gen. Winslow, on his marched towards Crown Point, not to proceed.

The fall of the fort at Oswego was most unfortunate for the English, and their loss of men made prisoners, and munitions of war, peculiarly severe. By the capture of this post, the enemy obtained the entire command of the lakes Ontario and Erie, and of the whole country of the Five Nations. Sixteen hundred men were made prisoners, and one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon were taken, with fourteen mortars, two sloops of war, and two hundred boats and batteaux.

After this disastrous event, all offensive operations were immediately relinquished, although it was then three months to the time of the usual decampment of the army. Thus through the inactivity of a man, whose leading trait was *indecision*, not one object of the campaign was gained, nor one purpose accomplished, either honourable or important.

XII. Notwithstanding the failure of the campaign of

this season, the British Parliament made great preparations to prosecute the war the succeeding year, 1757. In July, an armament of eleven ships of the line and fifty transports, with more than six thousand troops, arrived at Halifax, destined for the reduction of Louisburg.—The colonies had been raising men for an expedition against Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Great was their mortification and disappointment, when they learned from the orders of lord Loudon, that these troops were to be employed against Louisburg. Such inconstancy and fluctuation appeared beneath the dignity of the commander in chief. But they were obliged to submit, and lord Loudon proceeded to join the armament at Halifax.

So dilatory were their measures, however, that before they were ready to sail, Louisburg was reinforced by a fleet of seventeen sail, and with troops to make it nine thousand strong. On the reception of this intelligence, it was deemed inexpedient to proceed, and the expedition was abandoned.

XIII. While weakness and indecision were marking the counsels of the English, the French continued to urge on their victories. Montcalm, still commander of the French in the north, finding the troops withdrawn from Halifax, for the reduction of Louisburg, seized the occasion to make a descent on Fort William Henry, situated on the north shore of Lake George. The garrison of the fort consisted of three thousand men. With a force of nine thousand men, Montcalm laid siege to it.—After a gallant defence of six days, the garrison surrendered, thus giving to Montcalm the command of the lake, and of the western frontier.

The spirited and protracted defence of the fort, against such numbers, reflects the highest honour upon its brave commander, Col. Munroe. Six days was the enemy kept at bay, with unabated resolution, in full expectation of assistance from Gen. Webb, who lay at Fort Edward, only fifteen miles distant, with an army of four thousand men.

The character of Gen. Webb continues sullied, by his unpardonable indifference to the perilous situation of his brethren

in arms, at Fort William Henry. It deserves to be known that Sir William Johnson, after very importunate solicitations, obtained leave of Gen. Webb to march with as many as would volunteer in the service, to the relief of Munroe.

At the beat of the drums, the provincials, almost to a man, sallied forth, and were soon ready and eager for the march. After being under arms almost all day, what were their feelings when Sir William, returning from head-quarters, informed them that General Webb had forbidden them to march!

The soldiers were inexpressibly mortified and enraged,—and their commander did himself no common honour in the tears he shed, as he turned from his troops, and retired to his tent.

The defence of Fort William Henry was so gallant, that Col. Munroe, with his troops, was admitted to an honourable capitulation. The capitulation, however, was most shamefully broken. While the troops were marching out at the gate of the fort, the Indians attached to Montcalm's party dragged the men from their ranks, and with all the inhumanity of savage feeling, plundered them of their baggage, and butchered them in cold blood. Out of a New-Hampshire corps of two hundred, eighty were missing.

It is said that efforts were made by the French to restrain the barbarians, but the truth of the assertion may well be doubted, when it is considered that Montcalm's force was at least seven thousand French, and yet these barbarians were not restrained.

XIV. In 1758, most fortunately for the honour of the British arms, and for the salvation of the colonies, a change took place in the ministry of England. The celebrated Pitt, lord Chatham, now placed at the head of the administration, breathed a new soul into the British councils, and revived the energies of the colonies, weakened and exhausted by a series of ill-contrived and unfortunate expeditions. The tide of success now turned in favour of the English, who continued, with some few exceptions, to achieve one victory after another, until the whole of Canada surrendered to the British arms.

Pitt, upon coming into office, addressed a circular to the colonial governours, in which he assured them of the determination of the ministry to send a large force to America, and called upon them to raise as many troops, as the number of inhabitants would allow. The

nies were prompt and liberal in furnishing the requisite supplies. Massachusetts, Connecticut and New-Hampshire, unitedly raised fifteen thousand men, who were ready to take the field in May.

XV. Three expeditions were proposed—the *first* against Louisburg; the *second* against Ticonderoga; the *third* against Fort du Quesne.

XVI. On the expedition against *Louisburg*, admiral Boscawen sailed from Halifax, May 28th, with a fleet of twenty ships of the line, eighteen frigates, and an army of fourteen thousand men, under the command of brigadier Gen. Amherst, next to whom in command was Gen. Wolfe. On the 26th of July, after a vigorous resistance, this fortress was surrendered, and with it five thousand seven hundred and thirty-seven prisoners of war, and one hundred and twenty cannon, besides which the enemy lost five ships of the line and four frigates. At the same time, Isle Royal, St. Johns, with Cape Breton, fell into the hands of the English, who now became masters of the coast from St. Lawrence to Nova Scotia.

The surrender of this fortress was a more signal loss to France than any which she had sustained since the commencement of the war. It greatly obstructed her communications with Canada, and was powerfully instrumental in hastening the subjugation of that country to the British crown.

XVII. The expedition against *Ticonderoga* was conducted by Gen. Abercrombie, commander in chief in America, lord Loudon having returned to England. An army of sixteen thousand men, nine thousand of whom were provincials, followed his standard, besides a formidable train of artillery.

Having passed Lake George, the army proceeded with great difficulty towards the fortress. Unfortunately, Gen. Abercrombie trusted to others, who were incompetent to the task, to reconnoitre the ground and entrenchments of the enemy, and, without a knowledge of the strength of the places, or of the proper points of attack, issued his orders to attempt the lines without bringing up a single piece of artillery.

The army advanced to the charge with the greatest intrepidity, and for more than four hours maintained the attack with incredible obstinacy.

After the loss of nearly two thousand in killed and wounded the troops were summoned away. The retreat was as unhappy as the attack had been precipitate and ill advised. Not a doubt can rationally exist, that had the siege been prosecuted with prudence and vigour, the reduction of the place would have been easily accomplished, without so great a waste of human life, as the garrison amounted to but little more than three thousand men.

The passage of Abercrombie, across lake George on his way with his army to Ticonderoga, was effected by means of one thousand and thirty-five boats. The splendour of the military parade on the occasion was eminently imposing, and deserves to be recorded. A late writer, Dr. Dwight, thus describes it.

"The morning was remarkably bright and beautiful; and the fleet moved with exact regularity to the sound of fine martial musick. The ensigns waved and glittered in the sunbeams, and the anticipation of future triumph shone in every eye. Above, beneath, around, the scenery was that of enchantment. Rarely has the sun, since that luminary was first lighted up in the heavens, dawned on such a complication of beauty and magnificence." How greatly did all the parade which was displayed, and all the anticipation which was indulged, add to the mortification of the defeat which followed!

After his repulse, Gen. Abercrombie retired to his former quarters on Lake George. Here, anxious in any way to repair the mischief and disgrace of defeat, he consented, at the solicitation of Col. Bradstreet, to detach him with three thousand men, against Fort Frontenac, on the northwest side of the outlet of Lake Ontario. With these troops, mostly provincial, Bradstreet sailed down the Ontario, landed within a mile of the fort, opened his batteries, and, in two days, forced this important fortress to surrender. Nine armed vessels, sixty cannon, sixteen mortars, and a vast quantity of ammunition, &c. &c. fell into his hands.

XVIII. To dispossess the French at *Fort du Quebec*,

the bulwark of their dominion over the western regions, was a third expedition contemplated this year. This enterprise was entrusted to Gen. Forbes, who left Philadelphia in July, but did not arrive at Du Quesne till late in November. The force collected for the attack amounted to eight thousand effective men. An attack, however, was needless, the fort having been deserted by the garrison the evening before the arrival of the army. On taking quiet possession of the place, Forbes, in honour of Mr. Pitt, called it *Pittsburg*.

Notwithstanding the defeat of Ticonderoga, the campaign closed with honour to the colonies, and to the nation in general. The successes of the year prepared the way for the still greater achievements of the ensuing year.

XIX. Another event of this year concurred in bringing to pass the fortunate issues of the next. This was a treaty of peace and friendship with the Indian nations inhabiting between the Apalachian mountains, the Alleghanies, and the lakes. This treaty was concluded at Easton, sixty miles from Philadelphia.

The managers of the treaty on the part of Great Britain, were the governours of Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, Sir William Johnson, four members of the council of Pennsylvania, six members of assembly, and two agents from New-Jersey.

The tribes represented on this occasion, and with which the treaty was made, were the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagoes, Cayugas, Senecas, Tuscaroras, Nanticoques, and Conays, the Tuteloes, Chugnuts, Delawares, Unamies, Minisinks, Mohicans, and Wappingers. The whole number of Indians, including women and children, present, amounted to five hundred.

XX. The campaign of 1759 had for its object the entire conquest of Canada. For this purpose, it was determined that three powerful armies should enter Canada by different routes, and attack, at nearly the same time, all the strong-holds of the French in that country. These were *Ticonderoga* and *Crown Point*, *Niagara* and *Quebec*.

XXI. Gen. Amherst, who had succeeded Abercrombie, as commander in chief, led one division against *Ticonderoga*, which he reached July 22. This fortress soon surrendered, the principal part of the garrison having retired to Crown Point. Having strengthened *Ticonderoga*, the army next proceeded against this latter place, and took quiet possession of it, the enemy having fled before their arrival.

The French retired to the *Isle aux Noix*, situated at the northern extremity of Lake Champlain, where they were strongly encamped with a force of three thousand five hundred men, and a powerful artillery. Gen. Amherst designed to follow up his successes against them in that quarter, but the want of a suitable naval armament prevented.

XXII. The second division of the army, commanded by Gen. Prideaux, was destined against *Niagara*, at which place they arrived July 6th, without loss or opposition. The place was immediately invested: on the 24th of the month, a general battle took place, which decided the fate of *Niagara*, and placed it in the hands of the English.

Four days previous to this battle, that able and distinguished officer, General Prideaux, was killed by the bursting of a cannon. The command devolved on Sir William Johnson, who successfully put in execution the plans of his lamented predecessor.

XXIII. While the English troops were achieving these important victories in Upper Canada, Gen. Wolfe was prosecuting the most important enterprise of the campaign, viz. the reduction of *Quebec*. Embarking at *Louisbourg* with eight thousand men, under convoy of Admirals Saunders and Holmes, he landed with his troops in June, on the island of *Orleans*, a little below *Quebec*.

After several attempts to reduce the place, which proved unsuccessful, Wolfe conceived the project of ascending with his troops, a precipice of from 150 to 200 feet, by which he would reach the plains of Abraham, lying south and west of the city, and thus gain access to the enemy, in a less fortified spot.

This ascent he effected with his army, and the British

calm, the French general, was aware of it, the army had formed on the heights of Abraham, and were prepared for battle.

Here, on the morning of the 13th of September, Wolfe met the French army under Montcalm, and after a severe and bloody contest, in which both these brave commanders fell, victory decided in favour of the English. A thousand prisoners were taken, and a thousand of the enemy were killed. The loss of the English, in killed and wounded, did not exceed six hundred. Five days after, the city capitulated; the inhabitants were to enjoy their civil and religious rights, and remain neutral during the war. The city was garrisoned under the command of Gen. Murray.

Determined from the first to take the place, impregnable as it was accounted, the measures of Gen. Wolfe were singularly bold, and apparently repugnant to all the maxims of war. His attention was first drawn to point Levi, on the southern bank of the St. Lawrence, upon which after taking possession of it, he erected batteries. By means of these he destroyed many houses, but from this point it was soon apparent that little impression could be made on the fortifications of the town.

Finding it impracticable thus to accomplish his purpose, Wolfe next decided on more daring measures. For the purpose of drawing Montcalm to a general battle, Wolfe with his troops crossed the river Montmorenci, and attacked the enemy in their entrenchments. Owing, however, to the grounding of some of the boats which conveyed the troops, a part of the detachment did not land so soon as the others. The corps that first landed, without waiting to form, rushed forward impetuously towards the enemy's entrenchments. But their courage proved their ruin. A close and well directed fire from the enemy cut them down in great numbers.

Montcalm's party had now landed, and were drawn up on the beach in order. But it was near night, a thunder storm was approaching, and the tide was rapidly setting in. Fearing the consequences of delay, Wolfe ordered a retreat across the Montmorenci, and returned to his quarters on the Isle of Orleans. In this rencounter, his loss amounted to near six hundred of the flower of his army.

The difficulties of effecting the siege of Quebec now pressed upon Wolfe with all their force. But he knew the im-

portance of taking this strongest hold—he knew the expectations of his countrymen—he well knew that no military duct could shine that was not gilded with success.

Disappointed thus far, and worn down with fatigue watching, General Wolfe fell violently sick. Scarcely he recovered, before he proceeded to put in execution a plan which had been matured on his sick bed. This was to pass up the river, gain the heights of Abraham, and draw Montcalm to a general engagement.

Accordingly, the troops were transported up the river nine miles. On the 12th of Sept. one hour after midnight Wolfe and his troops left the ships, and in boats silently proceeded down the current, intending to land a league above Diamond, and there ascend the bank leading to the station which he wished to gain. Owing, however, to the rapidity of the current, they fell below the intended place, and landed a mile, or more, and a half, above the city.

The operation was a critical one, as they had to move in silence, down a rapid stream, and to find a right place for landing, which amidst surrounding darkness, might be mistaken. Besides this, the shore was shelving, and the ascent so steep and lofty, as scarcely to be ascended, even without the aid of position from an enemy. Indeed the attempt was in the greatest danger of being defeated by an occurrence peculiarly interesting, as marking the very great delicacy of the operation.

One of the French sentinels, posted along the shore, when English boats were descending, challenged them in the ordinary military language of the French. "*Qui vit ?*" "who is there?" to which a captain in Frazer's regiment, who had served in Holland, and was familiar with the French language and customs, promptly replied, "*la France.*" The next question was still more embarrassing, for the sentinel demanded "*quel régiment ?*" "to what regiment." The captain, who happened not to know the name of a regiment which was up the river, Bougainville, promptly rejoined, "*de la Reine.*" "of the Queen." The soldier immediately replied, "*passé,*" for he concluded at once, that this was a French convoy of provisions, which the English had learned from some deserters, was expected to pass down the river to Quebec. The other sentinels were deceived in a similar manner; but one, less credulous than the rest, running down to the water's edge, called out "*Passez, mais ne parlez plus haut !*" "Why don't you speak lower?" The same captain, with perfect self-command, replied, "*Tais-toi, nous serons entendus !*" "Hush, we shall be overheard."

and discovered!" The sentry, satisfied with this caution, retired, and the boats passed in safety.

About an hour before day, the army began to ascend the precipice, the distance of one hundred and fifty or two hundred feet, almost perpendicular ascent, above which spread the plains of Abraham. By daylight, Sept. 13th, this almost incredible enterprise had been effected—the desired station was attained, the army was formed, and ready to meet the enemy.

To Montcalm, the intelligence that the English were occupying the heights of Abraham was most surprising. The impossibility of ascending the precipice he considered certain, and therefore had taken no measures to fortify its line. But no sooner was he informed of the position of the English army, than perceiving a battle no longer to be avoided, he prepared to fight. Between nine and ten o'clock, the two armies, about equal in numbers, met face to face.

The battle now commenced. Inattentive to the fire of a body of Canadians and Indians, one thousand five hundred of whom Montcalm had stationed in the cornfields and bushes, Wolfe directed his troops to reserve their fire for the main body of the French, now rapidly advancing. On their approach within forty yards, the English opened their fire, and the destruction became immense.

The French fought bravely, but their ranks became disordered, and, notwithstanding the repeated efforts of their officers to form them, and to renew the attack, they were so successfully pushed by the British bayonet, and hewn down by the highland broadsword, that their discomfiture was complete.

During the action, Montcalm was on the French left, and Wolfe on the English right, and here they both fell in the critical moment that decided the victory. Early in the battle, Wolfe received a ball in his wrist, but binding his handkerchief around it, he continued to encourage his men. Shortly after, another ball penetrated his groin; but this wound, although much more severe, he concealed, and continued to urge on the contest, till a third bullet pierced his breast. He was now obliged, though reluctantly, to be carried to the rear of the line.

Gen. Moncton succeeded to the command, but was immediately wounded, and conveyed away. In this critical state of the action, the command devolved on Gen. Townshend. Gen. Montcalm, fighting in front of his battalion, received a mortal wound about the same time, and Gen. Jennezergus, his second in command, fell near his side.

Wolfe died in the field, before the battle was ended; but he lived long enough to know that the victory was his.—While leaning on the shoulder of a lieutenant, who kneeled to support him, he was seized with the agonies of death: at this moment was heard the distant sound, "They fly"—"they fly." The hero raised his drooping head, and eagerly asked, "Who fly?" Being told that it was the French—"Then," he replied, "I die happy," and expired.

"This death," says professor Silliman, "has furnished a grand and pathetic subject for the painter, the poet, and the historian, and undoubtedly, considered as a specimen of mere military glory, it is one of the most sublime that the annals of war afford."

Montcalm was every way worthy of being the competitor of Wolfe. In talents—in military skill—in personal courage, he was not his inferiour. Nor was his death much less sublime. He lived to be carried to the city, where his last moments were employed in writing, with his own hand, a letter to the English general, recommending the French prisoners to his care and humanity. When informed that his wound was mortal, he replied, "I shall not then live to see the surrender of Quebec."

XXIV. The capture of Quebec, which soon followed, important as it was, did not immediately terminate the war. The French in Canada had still a powerful army, and some naval force above the city.

XXV. In the ensuing spring, 1760, Monsieur Levi approached Quebec from Montreal, assisted by six frigates, for the purpose of recovering it from the English. Gen. Murray, who commanded the English garrison, marched out to meet him, with only three thousand men, and, on the 28th of April, after a bloody battle fought at Sillsery, three miles above the city, the English army was defeated, with the loss of one thousand men, the French having lost more than double that number.

The English retreated to Quebec, to which the French now laid siege. About the middle of May, an English squadron arrived with reinforcements, soon after which, the French fleet was taken and destroyed, and the siege was raised.

XXVI. The attention of the English commander in chief, Gen. Amherst, was now directed to the reduction

of Montreal, the last fortress of consequence in the possession of the French. To effect this he detached Col. Haviland, with a well disciplined army, to proceed to Lake George, Crown Point, and Lake Champlain; Gen. Murray was ordered from Quebec, with such forces as could be spared from the garrison, while General Amherst himself proceeded with ten thousand men, by Lake Ontario, down the river St. Lawrence.

Generals Amherst and Murray arrived at Montreal the same day, Sept. 6th, and were joined by Haviland, on the day succeeding. While preparing to lay siege to the place, the commander of Montreal, M. de Vaudreuil, perceiving that resistance would be ineffectual, demanded a capitulation. On the 8th, Montreal, Detroit, Michillimackinac, and all the other places within the government of Canada, were surrendered to his Britannick Majesty.

XXVII. Thus ended a war which, from the first hostilities, had continued six years, and during which much distress had been experienced, and many thousand valuable lives lost. Great and universal was the joy that spread through the colonies, at the successful termination of a contest, so long and severe, and publick thanksgivings were generally appointed to ascribe due honour to Him, who had preserved to the colonies their existence and liberties.

XXVIII. While the troops were employed in the conquest of Canada, the colonies of Virginia and South Carolina suffered invasion and outrage from the Cherokees, a powerful tribe of savages on the West. But in 1761, they were signally defeated by Col. Grant, and compelled to sue for peace.

Intelligence being communicated to Gen. Amherst of the danger of these colonies, he despatched Gen. Montgomery with one thousand two hundred men, for their protection and relief.

Being joined by the forces of the province of Carolina on his arrival, he immediately proceeded into the country of the Cherokees, plundering and destroying their villages and magazines of corn. In revenge, the savages besieged Fort Loudon, on

the confines of Virginia, which was obliged, by reason of famine, to capitulate. The capitulation was, however, broken; and the troops, while on their march to Virginia, were assaulted—numbers of them killed, and the rest taken captive.

The next year, 1761, Gen. Montgomery being obliged to return, Col. Grant was sent to continue the war. With an army of near two thousand six hundred men, he began his march towards the enemies' country. On the fourth day the army fell in with a body of savages, and after a strongly contested battle, put them to flight. Following up this victory, Col. Grant proceeded to destroy their magazines, burn their corn fields, and consume their settlements, until having effectually routed them, he returned with his troops. Soon after this, the Cherokee chiefs came in, and a peace was concluded.

XXIX. The conquest of Canada having been achieved in 1763, a definitive treaty, the preliminaries of which had been settled the year before, was signed at Paris, and soon after ratified by the kings of England and France; by which all Nova-Scotia, Canada, the Isle of Cape Breton, and all other islands in the gulf and river St. Lawrence, were ceded to the British crown.

Notes.

XXX. Manners of the Colonists. The change in respect to manners in the colonies, during this period, consisted chiefly in a gradual wearing away of national distinctions and peculiarities, and a tendency to a still greater unity and assimilation of character. The rapid increase of wealth, and the frequency of intercourse with Europe, began to introduce among the colonies the tastes, and fashions, and luxuries of European countries. But the introduction of them produced little enervation of character among the people of America. Such an effect was counteracted by the bloody, but successful war with the French and Indians, and the boundless prosperity which seemed to open to the country, and call forth its energies. Instead, therefore, of a growing weakness in the colonies, we perceive a more vigorous spirit of

mercial enterprise, pervading the country: a consciousness of political importance becoming confirmed; and a deep and ardent love of civil liberty breathing over the land.

XXXI. Religion. The only religious sect introduced into America, during this period, was that of the *Shakers*, or *Shaking Quakers*, who arrived from England in 1774, and settled at Niskayuna, near Albany.

Although the spirit of religious intolerance had disappeared from the colonies, and the puritanical severity of the north had become much softened, yet until the commencement of the French and Indian war, the religious character of the colonies had remained essentially the same. But during this war, *Aydelity* was extensively introduced into the army, by means of the foreign English officers and soldiers who were sent into the country. From the army, it spread itself into society, and produced a considerable relaxation of morals, and a looser adherence to principles.

XXXII. Trade and Commerce. During this period, trade and commerce made great advances; the annual amount of imports from Great Britain, was about two and a half millions of pounds sterling, from 1756 to 1771: from 1771 to 1773, it was three millions and a half annually, on an average.—The annual amount of exports of the colonies to Great Britain and elsewhere, was about four million pounds sterling, at the close of this period. The articles of export, and the nature of the trade of the colonies, were essentially the same as stated in the notes to period third.

In 1769, the number of ships employed by Great Britain and the colonies, in the trade with the colonies, was one thousand seventy-eight, manned by twenty-eight thousand nine hundred and ten seamen.

The whale and other fisheries in the colonies had become of great importance. In 1775, there were employed in the fishery generally, and in carrying the fish to market from New-England, one thousand four hundred and fifty vessels of all descriptions, of one hundred thousand tons burthen, and eleven thousand fishermen and seamen.

XXXIII. Agriculture. During this period, a gradual progress was made in agriculture.

XXXIV. Arts and Manufactures. Great

Britain still continued to oppose the progress of arts and manufactures in the colonies, and, therefore, there was but a moderate advance of these interests, during this period.

XXXV. Population. At the close of this period, the white and black population of the colonies did not vary greatly from three millions.

XXXVI. Education. In the year 1769, the college at Hanover, New-Hampshire, was founded, and called *Dartmouth College*, in honour of the earl of Dartmouth, who was one of its principal benefactors.

In 1770, the University in Rhode-Island called *Brown University*, was established at Providence. It was incorporated in 1764, and first located at Warren. At this place the first commencement was held, 1769.

Reflections.

XXXVII. The preceding short period of our history presents several interesting subjects of reflection. The American colonies became the theatre of a bloody conflict, attended by all the appalling features of savage war. Although feebly supported by England, and embarrassed by the want of political union, they surmounted every obstacle, and compelled the French, their enemies, to depart from their shores for ever.

But no sooner was this conflict ended, than they began to feel, with added weight, the hand of British oppression.—Not humbled, however, by injustice, nor crushed by severities, they vigorously put forth their strength in commerce, trade and agriculture. They spread innumerable sails upon the ocean; they converted forests into meadows and wheat fields; established seminaries of learning; founded cities; and built churches to God.

Nay, more—we see that those very steps, which were taken by the mother country to cripple the American colonies, were so ordered as to add their strength. By leaving them to bear the war of 1756 almost alone, she showed them that they could not expect defence from her; she taught them the necessity of relying upon their own energies; gave them an opportunity to learn the art of war, and to ascertain their own strength.

The long line of British acts, designed to crush the colonies,

and to keep them in humble subjection, passed, as they were, in willful ignorance of the feelings and power of America, awakened the spirit of the revolution, and laid the foundation of a great nation.

What a lesson may tyranny gather from this! And how thankful should we be, that a just Providence is above, who regards the affairs of men—who turns aside the trampling heel of oppression, and causes the blood wrung out by tyranny, to cry from the ground; and to call forth the spirit of liberty!

UNITED STATES.

Period V.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.



Battle of Lexington.

Extending from the commencement of hostilities by Great Britain against the American colonies, in the battle of Lexington, 1775, to the disbanding of the American Army at West Point, 1783.

Section I. On the 19th of April, 1775, was shed at Lexington, Massachusetts, the first blood in the way of the revolution—a war, which terminated in the separation

of the American colonies from Great Britain, and in their change from this humble character and condition, to that of free and independent States.

II. The *causes*, which led the colonies to take up arms against the mother country, deserves a distinct recital in this portion of our history, as they will clearly show the justice, wisdom, and necessity of those acts of resistance, to which, at that trying period, resort was had.

"The independence of America," it has been observed, "was found by those who sought it not." When the Fathers of this country left Great Britain, they had no intention of establishing a government independent of that of England. On the contrary, they came out as colonists, and expected still to acknowledge allegiance to the mother country. For many years, when they spoke, or wrote, or thought of England, it was under the filial and affectionate idea of "*home*." "And even at the commencement of the controversy with Great Britain," if we credit those who lived at that time, "there existed no *desire*, nor *intention* of becoming independent."

Testimony with respect to the filial disposition of the colonies towards the mother country abounds. "I profess," said Pownall, who had been governor and commander in chief of Massachusetts Bay—governor of South Carolina, &c. &c.

"I profess," said he, in 1765, "an affection for the colonies, because, having lived among their people in a private as well as public character, I know them—I know that in their private, social relations, there is not a more friendly, and in their political one, a more zealously loyal people in all his majesty's dominions. They would sacrifice their dearest interest for the honour of their mother country. I have a right to say this, because experience has given me a practical knowledge and the impression of them.—They have no other idea of this country than as their home; they have no other word by which to express it, and till of late, it has been constantly expressed by the name of home."

The testimony of Dr. Franklin is to the same effect. "Scotland," said he, in 1768, "has had its rebellions; Ireland has had its rebellions; England its plots against the reigning family; but America is free from this reproach."—"No people were ever known more truly loyal: the protestant succession in the case of Hanover was their *fact*."

For these feelings of affection for the mother country, the colonies deserve the highest encomium. Causes existed which might have justified a less degree of attachment; and were calculated to produce it. These were the oppression and losses which they endured; the shackles imposed upon them; the restraints upon their commerce; the parsimony with which aid was administered by the mother country; the misadministration—the peculation and arbitrary conduct of the royal governors—these things were sufficient, and more than sufficient, to stifle every feeling of affection, and shake the last remains of their allegiance.

Yet, through all this oppressive subordination—through the calamities of war—through the attempt to wrest from them their charters, and their dearest rights—they could say, and did say, “England, with all thy faults, I love thee still.”

Nor is it probable that these friendly dispositions of the colonies would at this time have been withdrawn, had not Great Britain interrupted them by a grievous change of policy towards the inhabitants, touching the subject of revenue and taxation.

Before the peace of '63, this subject had been wisely let alone. The colonies had been permitted to tax themselves, without the interference of the parliament. Till this period, it had sufficed for the mother country so to control their commerce, as to monopolize its benefits to herself. But from and after this period, the ancient system was set aside, and a different and oppressive policy adopted.

The first act, the avowed purpose of which was a revenue from the colonies, passed the parliament, Sept. 29th, 1764, the preamble to which began thus:—“Whereas it is just and necessary that a revenue be raised in America, for defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the same, we the commons, &c.” The act then proceeds to lay a duty on “clayed sugar, indigo, coffee, &c. &c. being the produce of a colony not under the dominion of his majesty.”

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This act the colonies could not approve. They could not approve of it, because it recognized the existence of a right to tax them—a right not founded in justice, and which since their existence, nearly one hundred and fifty years, until now, had seldom been named. But the colonies could submit to it, although unpleasant and unjust, nor would this act alone have led to permanent disaffection, had it not been followed by other acts, still more unjust and oppressive.

On the subject of the right of the British parliament to tax the colonies, it was asserted in the mother country "to be essential to the unity, and of course to the prosperity, of the empire, that the British parliament should have a right of taxation over every part of the royal dominions." In the colonies it was contended "that *taxation and representation* were inseparable, and that they could not be safe, if their property might be taken from them, without their consent." This claim of the right of taxation on the one side, and the denial of it on the other, was *the very hinge on which the revolution turned*.

In accordance with the policy to be observed towards America, the next year, 1765, the famous *stamp act* passed both houses of parliament. This ordained that instruments of writing, such as deeds, bonds, notes, &c. among the colonies, should be null and void, unless executed on *stamped* paper, for which a duty should be paid to the crown.

When this bill was brought in, the ministers, and particularly Charles Townsend, exclaimed:

"These Americans, our own children, planted by our care, nourished by our indulgence, protected by our arms, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence; will they now turn their backs upon us, and grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load which overwhelms us?"

Col. Barre caught the words, and, with a vehemence becoming a soldier, rose and said:

"*Planted by your care!* No! your oppression planted them in America; they fled from your tyranny into a then uncultivated land, where they were exposed to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable, and among others, to the savage cruelty of the enemy of the country, a people, the most subtle, and, I take upon me to say, the most truly terrible of any people that ever inhabited any part of God's earth; and yet actuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all

these hardships with pleasure, compared with those they suffered in their own country, from the hands of those that should have been their friends.

"They nourished by your indulgence!" They grew by your neglect; as soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule over them, in one department and another, who were, perhaps, the deputies of the deputies of some members of this house, sent to spy out their liberty, to misrepresent their actions, and to prey upon them: men, whose behaviour, on many occasions, had caused the blood of these sons of liberty to recoil within them: men, promoted to the highest seats of justice, some of whom, to my knowledge, were glad, by going to foreign countries, to escape the vengeance of the laws of their own.

"They protected by your arms!" They have nobly taken up arms in your defence, have exerted their valour amidst their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontiers, while drenched in blood, its interior parts have yielded for your enlargement the little savings of their frugality and the fruits of their toils. *And believe me, remember, I this day told you so, that the same spirit which actuated that people at first, will continue with them still."*

The night after this act passed, Doctor Franklin, who was then in London, wrote to Charles Thompson, afterwards secretary of the Continental Congress, *"The sun of liberty is set; the Americans must light the lamps of industry and economy."* To which Mr. Thompson answered: *"Be assured we shall light torches of quite another sort"*—thus predicting the convulsions which were about to follow.

III. On the arrival of the news of the stamp act in America, a general indignation spread through the country, and resolutions were passed against the act, by most of the colonial assemblies.

In these resolutions, Virginia led the way. On the meeting of the house of burgesses, Patrick Henry presented, among others, the following resolutions, which were substantially adopted.

Resolved, That his majesty's liege people of this his ancient colony, have enjoyed the rights of being thus governed by their own assembly, in the article of taxes, and internal police, and that the same have never been forfeited or yielded up, but have been constantly recognized by the king and people of Britain.

Resolved, therefore, That the general assembly of this colony, together with his majesty, or his substitutes, have, in their representative capacity, the only conclusive right and power to

lay taxes and imposts upon the inhabitants of this colony; and that every attempt to vest such power in any other person, or persons, whatsoever, than the general assembly aforesaid, is illegal, unconstitutional, and unjust, and hath a manifest tendency to destroy British as well as American liberty.

Resolved, That his majesty's liege people, the inhabitants of this colony, are not bound to yield obedience to any law or ordinance whatever, designed to impose any taxation whatever upon them, other than the laws or ordinances of the general assembly aforesaid.

Resolved, That any person who shall, by speaking or writing, assert or maintain that any person, or persons, other than the general assembly of this colony, have any right or power to impose or lay any tax on the people here, shall be deemed an enemy to this, his majesty's colony.

Copies of these resolutions were immediately forwarded to the other provinces, and served to raise still higher the general feeling of opposition to the conduct of the mother country.

IV. In June, Massachusetts recommended a colonial congress to consult for the general safety. The recommendation was well received by most of the colonies, and in October, twenty eight members assembled in New-York, where they remonstrated against the stamp act, and petitioned its repeal. At the same time, also, they drew up a bill of rights, in which taxation and representation were declared to be inseparable.

V. The stamp act came into operation on the first of November. In Boston, and in Portsmouth, the day was ushered in by a federal tolling of the bells. In the latter place, in the course of the day, a coffin, neatly ornamented, and inscribed with the word *Liberty*, in large letters, was carried to the grave. Minute guns were fired during the movement of the procession to the place of interment; where an oration was offered in favour of the deceased. Similar expressions of wounded and indignant feeling occurred in various parts of the country.

In some places, the stamp officers were obliged to resign, or to secrete themselves, to escape the vengeance of the people. Stamps were not permitted to be landed, and business, in many places, was conducted without them. At the same time, associations were formed in all parts of the

country, by merchants, not to import goods until this odious act was repealed. Most cheerfully did the people, women as well as men, enter upon this self-denial. Luxuries, decorations, elegancies, were universally laid aside.

The opposition to the stamp act in America was so spirited, so deep laid, so universal, that parliament had only the alternative, to compel her to submit, or to repeal it. After a long and angry debate on the question, the repeal was carried; but accompanying the repealing act, was one called the *declaratory* act, more hostile to the American rights than any which had preceded. The language of the act was, "that parliament have, and of right ought to have, *power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever.*"

On the 22d of February, General Conway introduced a motion into parliament to repeal the stamp act. The debate lasted until three o'clock in the morning, and never was there a debate which excited more warmth of interest, or more vehemence of opposition. The lobbies of the house were crowded with manufacturers and traders of the kingdom, whose anxious countenances plainly showed that their fates hung upon the issue. A division at length being called for, two hundred and seventy-five rose in support of the motion, and one hundred and sixty-seven against it.

The satisfaction of the colonies on the repeal of the stamp act was sincere and universal. Elevated with the idea of having removed an odious and oppressive burden, and believing, notwithstanding the declaratory act of parliament, that the right of taxing the colonies was at length surrendered, better feelings were indulged; commercial intercourse was revived, and larger importations of goods were made than ever.

VI. The colonies, however, mistook the spirit and determination of the ministry. For, in 1767, a bill passed the parliament, imposing a duty to be collected in the colonies on glass, paper, painter's colours, and tea.

This act, with several others, not less arbitrary and unjust, again spread alarm through the colonies, and revived the fire of opposition which had been smothered by the repeal of the stamp act. Again were associations formed

to prevent the importation of British goods; again were meetings called to resolve, petition, and remonstrate.

VII. In Feb. 1769, both houses of parliament went a step beyond all that had preceded, in an address to the king, requesting him to give orders to the governour of Massachusetts—the spirited conduct of which province was particularly obnoxious to the ministry—to take notice of such as might be guilty of treason, that they might be sent to *England and tried there.*

A measure more odious to the people of America, or more hostile to the British constitution, could not be named, than for a man to be torn from his country, to be tried by a jury of strangers.

The house of burgesses of Virginia met soon after the official accounts of this address were received, and, in a few days, passed several spirited resolutions, expressing “their exclusive right to tax their constituents, and denying the right of his majesty to remove an offender out of the country for trial.” The next day, the royal governour of that colony sent for the house of burgesses and addressed them laconically as follows: “Mr. Speaker, and gentlemen of the house of burgesses, I have heard of your resolves, and augur ill of their effects. You have made it my duty to dissolve you, and you are accordingly dissolved!” The assembly of North Carolina passed similar resolutions, and were dissolved by their governour, in a similar manner.

VIII. While affairs were thus situated, an event occurred which produced great excitement in America, particularly in Massachusetts. This was an affray on the evening of the fifth of March, 1770, between some of the citizens of Boston, and a number of his majesty’s soldiers, who had been sent from Halifax, and were now stationed at the custom house. Several of the inhabitants were killed, and others severely wounded.

The quarrel commenced on the 2d of March, at Gray’s rope walk, between a soldier and a man employed at the rope walk. The provocation was given by the citizen, and a scuffle ensued, in which the soldier was beaten. On the 5th of the month, the soldiers, while under arms, were pressed upon and insulted, and dared to fire. One of them, who had received a blow, fired at the aggressor, and a single discharge from six others followed. Three of the citizens were killed, and five des-

generously wounded. The town was instantly thrown into the greatest commotion, the bells were rung, and the general cry was "to arms."

In a short time several thousands of the citizens had assembled, and a dreadful scene of blood must have ensued, but for the promise of Governour Hutchinson, that the affair should be settled to their satisfaction in the morning. Captain Preston, who commanded the soldiers, was committed with them to prison. Upon their trial, the captain and six soldiers were acquitted; two were convicted of manslaughter. For several subsequent years, the evening of the day on which this outrage was committed, was commemorated by the citizens of Boston, and the event gave occasion to addresses the most warm and patriotick, which served to waken up, and increase the spirit of the revolution.

IX. 1773. The recommendations of meetings and associations to suspend the importation of tea, had been so strictly complied with, that but little had been brought into the country. The consequence was, that vast quantities, seventeen millions of pounds, had accumulated upon the hands of the East India Company.—For their relief, the parliament now authorized them to export this tea into any part of the world, free of duty. By this regulation tea would come cheaper to the colonies than before it had been made a source of revenue—parliament having, in 1767, reduced the duty on it to three pence a pound.

Confident of now finding a market for their tea in America the East India Company freighted several ships with that article for the different colonies, and appointed agents to dispose of it. On the arrival of this tea, however, the determination of the colonists was formed—they would not pay even *three pence* by way of duty. The consequence was, that cargoes of tea sent to New-York and Philadelphia, were returned without being entered at the custom house; and those sent to Charleston S. C. were stored but not offered for sale.

In Massachusetts, a different fate awaited it. Upon its arrival, the inhabitants endeavoured to procure its return, but this being impracticable, the tea having been consigned to the relations and friends of the royal governour, Hutchinson, they resolved to destroy it. Accordingly, a

number of persons, dressed like Indians, repaired to the ships, and discharged three hundred and forty-two chests of tea into the water, without, however, doing any other damage.

X. Intelligence of these proceedings was, on the 7th of March, 1774, communicated in a message from the throne to both houses of Parliament. The excitement was peculiarly strong. In the spirit of revenge against Massachusetts, and particularly against Boston, which was considered as the chief seat of rebellion, a bill was brought forward, called the "*Boston port bill*," by which the port of Boston was precluded from the privilege of landing and discharging, or of loading and shipping goods, wares, and merchandise.

A second bill, which passed at this time, essentially altered the charter of the province, making the appointment of the council, justices, judges, &c. dependent upon the crown, or its agent. A third soon followed, authorizing and directing the governor to send any person indicted for murder, or any other capital offence, to another colony, or to Great Britain for trial.

XI. On the arrival of these acts, the town of Boston passed the following vote: "That it is the opinion of this town, that, if the other colonies come into a joint resolution to stop all importation from Great Britain and the West Indies, till the act for blocking up this harbour be repealed, the same will prove the salvation of N. America and her liberties." Copies of this vote were transmitted to each of the colonies.

As an expression of their sympathy with the people of Boston in their distress, the house of burgesses in Virginia ordered that the day, on which the Boston port bill was to take effect, should be observed as a day of fasting and prayer.

The words *Whigs* and *Tories* were, about this time, introduced as the distinguishing names of parties. By the former, was meant those who favoured the cause of Boston, and were zealous in supporting the colonies against the parliament; by the latter, was meant the supporters of Great Britain.

X II. During these transactions in Massachusetts, measures had been taken to convene a continental Congress. On the 4th of Sept. 1774, deputies from eleven colonies met at Philadelphia, and elected Peyton Randolph, the then late speaker of the Virginia Assembly, president, and Charles Thompson, secretary. After considerable debate, it was agreed that each colony should have one equal vote.

Having settled the manner of voting, the congress proceeded to the discharge of the high trust committed to them. They agreed upon a declaration of their rights, recommended the non-importation of British goods into the country, and the non-exportation of American produce to Great Britain, so long as their grievances were undressed—voted an address to his Majesty—and likewise one to the people of Great Britain, and another to the French inhabitants of Canada.

This congress, having finished their business in less than eight weeks, dissolved themselves, after recommending another congress to be convened on the 10th of May ensuing, unless the redress of their grievances should be previously obtained.

Although the power of this congress was only advisory, their resolutions were approved, not only by the people, but also by the authorities, whether established, or provincial, and exerted a commanding influence in consummating that union among the colonies, which had been increasing with their grievances.

The name by which the above congress is generally known is "*the Continental Congress*." It consisted of fifty-five members, one half of whom were lawyers. After the arrival of the delegates from North Carolina, twelve colonies were represented.

XIII. An assembly was ordered by Gov. Gage, of Massachusetts, to convene Oct. 5th; but before that period arrived, judging their meeting inexpedient, he counteracted the writs of convocation, by a proclamation. The assembly, however, to the number of ninety, met at Boston, where the governor not attending, they adjourned

to Concord. Here they chose John Hancock president, and, after adjourning to Cambridge, drew up a plan for the immediate defence of the province, by enlisting men, appointing general officers, &c.

In November, this provincial congress met again, and resolved to get in readiness twelve thousand men, to act in any emergency; and that one-fourth part of the militia should be enlisted as minute-men. At the same time, a request was forwarded to Connecticut, New-Hampshire, and Rhode-Island, jointly to increase this army to twenty thousand men.

XIV. Early the next year, Jan. 7th, 1775, Lord Chatham, Mr. Pitt, after a long retirement, resumed his seat in the house of Lords, and introduced a *conciliatory bill*, the object of which was, to settle the troubles in America. But the efforts of this venerable and peace-making man wholly failed, the bill being rejected by a majority of sixty-four to thirty-two, without even the compliment of lying on the table.

The rejection of this bill was followed the next day by the introduction of a bill, which finally passed, to restrain the trade of the New-England provinces, and to forbid their fishing on the banks of Newfoundland. Soon after, restrictions were imposed upon the middle and southern colonies, with the exception of New-York, Delaware, and North Carolina. This bill, designed to promote disunion among the colonies, happily failed of its object.

Thus we have given a succinct account of the system of measures adopted by the ministry of England toward the American colonies after the peace of '63—measures most unfeeling and unjust; but which no petitions, however respectful, and no remonstrances, however loud, could change. Satisfied of this, justice permitted the people, and self-respect and self-preservation loudly summoned them, to *resist by force*.

XV. The crisis, therefore, had now arrived, the signal of war was given, and the blood shed at Lexington opened the scene.

Gen. Gage, the king's governor of Massachusetts, learning that a large quantity of military stores had been deposited by the provincials, at Concord, detached Lieut. Col. Smith, and Major Pitcairn, with eight hundred

grenadiers, to destroy them. On their arrival at Lexington, on the morning of the 19th of April, 1775, seventy of the militia, who had hastily assembled upon an alarm, were under arms, on the parade. Eight of these were without provocation killed, and several wounded.

The greatest precaution was taken by Governour Gage, to prevent the intelligence of this expedition from reaching the country. Officers were dispersed along the road to intercept expresses, who might be sent from Boston. But the precaution proved ineffectual. The alarm was given, and was rapidly spread, by means of church bells, guns, and volleys.

The slaughter of the militia at Lexington was extremely wanton. Major Pitcairn, on seeing them on the parade, rode up to them, and, with a loud voice, cried out, "disperse, disperse, you rebels; throw down your arms and disperse." The sturdy yeomanry not immediately obeying his orders, he approached nearer, discharged his pistol, and ordered his soldiers to fire.

From Lexington, the detachment proceeded to Concord, and destroyed the stores. After killing several of the militia, who came out to oppose them, they retreated to Lexington with some loss, the Americans firing upon them from behind walls, hedges, and buildings.

Fortunately for the British, here Lord Percy met them, with a reinforcement of nine hundred men, some marines, and two field-pieces. Still annoyed by the provincials, they continued their retreat to Bunker's Hill, in Charlestown, and the day following crossed over to Boston. The British lost, in killed and wounded, during their absence, two hundred and seventy-three. The loss of the Americans amounted to eighty-eight, killed, wounded, and missing.

XVI. Such was the affair at Lexington, the first action that opened the war of the revolution. The issue of it filled the English officers with indignation; they could not endure that an undisciplined multitude, that "*a flock of Yankees*," as they contemptuously named the Americans, should have forced them to turn their backs. On the contrary, the result of the day immeasurably increased the courage of the Americans. The tidings spread; the voice of war rung through the land, and preparations were every where commenced to carry it forward.

The provincial Congress of Massachusetts, being in session at this time, despatched a minute account of the

affair at Lexington, to Great Britain, with depositions to prove that the British troops were the aggressors. In conclusion, they used this emphatic language; "Appealing to heaven for the justice of our cause, we determine to die, or be free."

The congress, at the same time, resolved that a levy should be made in the province of thirteen thousand six hundred men. This force being raised, was soon after joined by troops from New-Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode-Island, and an army of thirty thousand men assembled in the environs of Boston.

XVII. As the war had now begun, and was likely to proceed, it was deemed important to secure the fortresses of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Accordingly, a number of volunteers from Connecticut and Vermont, under command of Col. Ethan Allen, and Col. Benedict Arnold, marched against Ticonderoga, and, on the 10th of May, took it by surprise, the garrison being asleep. The fortress of Crown Point surrendered shortly after.

On the arrival of Allen at Ticonderoga, he demanded the fort. "By what authority?" asked the commander. "I demand it," said Allen, "in the name of the Great Jehovah, and of the Continental Congress." The summons was instantly obeyed, and the fort was, with its valuable stores, surrendered.

XVIII. The taking of Ticonderoga and Crown Point was soon followed by the memorable *Battle of Bunker's Hill*, as it is usually called, or of *Breed's Hill*, a high eminence in Charlestown, within cannon-shot of Boston, where the battle was actually fought, June 17th.

The evening preceding, a detachment of one thousand Americans were ordered to make an entrenchment on Bunker's Hill; but by some mistake, they proceeded to *Breed's Hill*, and by the dawn of day, had thrown up a redoubt eight rods square, and four feet high.

On discovering this redoubt in the morning, the British commenced a severe cannonade upon it, from several ships and floating batteries, and from a fortification on Copp's Hill, in Boston, which was continued until afternoon. The Americans, however, never intermitted their work for a moment, and during the forenoon, lost but a single man.

Between twelve and one o'clock, three thousand British

der command of Major General Howe, and Brigadier Gen. Pigot, crossed Charles river, with an intention to dislodge the Americans.

As they advanced, the British commenced firing at some distance from the redoubt; but the Americans reserved their fire, until the enemy were within twelve rods. They then opened, and the carnage was terrible. The British retreated in precipitate confusion. They were, however, rallied by their officers, being, in some instances, pushed on by their swords, and were again led to the attack. The Americans now suffered them to approach within six rods, when their fire mowed them down in heaps, and again they fled.

Unfortunately for the Americans, their ammunition here failed; and, on the third charge of the British, they were obliged to retire, after having obstinately resisted even longer than prudence admitted. The British lost in this engagement two hundred and twenty-six killed, among whom was Major Pitcairn, who first lighted the torch of war at Lexington, and eight hundred and twenty-eight wounded. The Americans lost one hundred and thirty-nine killed, and of wounded and missing there were three hundred and fourteen. Among the killed was the lamented Gen. Warren.

The horrors of this scene were greatly increased by the conflagration of Charlestown, effected, during the heat of the battle, by the orders of Gen. Gage. By this wanton act of barbarity, two thousand people were deprived of their habitations, and property to the amount of one hundred and twenty thousand pounds sterling perished in the flames.

"Wanton, however, as the burning of Charlestown was, it wonderfully enhanced the dreadful magnificence of the day. To the volleys of musketry and the roar of cannon; to the shouts of the fighting and the groans of the dying; to the dark and awful atmosphere of smoke, enveloping the whole peninsula, and illumined in every quarter by the streams of fire from the various instruments of death; the conflagration of six hundred buildings, added a gloomy and amazing grandeur. In the midst of this waving lake of flame, the lofty steeple, converted into a blazing pyramid, towered and trembled over the vast pyre, and finished the scene of desolation."

To the Americans, the consequences of this battle were those of a decided victory. They learned that their enemies were not invulnerable. At the same time, they learned the importance of stricter discipline, and greater preparations. As the result of the battle spread, the national pulse beat still higher, and the arm of opposition was braced still more firmly.

XIX. The second continental congress met at Philadelphia, on the 10th of May. As military opposition

to Great Britain was now resolved upon by the colonies, and had actually commenced, it became necessary to fix upon a proper person to conduct that opposition. The person unanimously selected by congress was *George Washington*, a member of their body, from Virginia.

General Washington, in his reply to the President of Congress, who announced to him his appointment, after consenting to enter upon the momentous duty assigned him, added; "But lest some unlucky event should happen unfavourable to my reputation, I beg it may be remembered, by every gentleman in the room, that I this day declare with the utmost sincerity, I do not think myself equal to the command I am honoured with.

"As to pay, sir, I beg leave to assure the congress, that as no pecuniary consideration could have tempted me to accept this arduous employment, at the expense of my domestic ease and happiness, I do not wish to make any profit from it. I will keep an exact account of my expenses. Those I doubt not they will discharge, and that is all I desire."

A special commission was drawn up and presented to him, as commander in chief of the American forces; on presenting it, congress unanimously adopted this resolution: "that they would maintain and assist him, and adhere to him with their lives and fortunes in the cause of American liberty."

Following the appointment of General Washington, was the appointment of four Major-Generals, Artemas Ward, Charles Lee, Philip Schuyler, and Israel Putnam; and eight Brigadier-Generals, Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan, and Nathaniel Greene.

XX. Gen. Washington, on his arrival at Cambridge, on the second of July, was received with joyful acclamations by the American army. He found them stretched from Roxbury to Cambridge, and hence to Mystic river,

* The whole sum which, in the course of the war, passed through his hands, amounted only to fourteen thousand four hundred and seventy-nine pounds sterling. After Gen. Washington's elevation to the presidency, he continued to send to the comptrollers of the treasury an annual account of his expenses, which, in some years, amounted to thirty-one thousand dollars. As the salary fixed by law for that office was no more than twenty-five thousand dollars, the excess he paid out of his private funds.

a distance of twelve miles. The British forces occupied Bunker and Breed's hill, and Boston Neck.

The attention of the commander in chief was immediately directed to the strength and situation of the enemy, and to the introduction of system and union into the army, the want of which pervaded every department. This was a delicate and difficult attempt, but the wisdom and firmness of Washington removed every obstacle, and at length brought even independent freemen, in a good degree, to the controul of military discipline.

XXI. While Washington was employed in organizing his army, and preparing for future operations, an important expedition was planned against Canada, the charge of which was assigned to Gens. Schuyler and Montgomery. On the 10th of September, on thousand American troops landed at St. Johns, the first British post in Canada, one hundred and fifteen miles north of Ticonderoga, but found it advisable to retire to the Isle aux Noix, twelve miles south of St. Johns. Here the health of Gen. Schuyler obliged him to return to Ticonderoga, and the command devolved on Gen. Montgomery. This enterprising officer, in a few days, returned to the investment of St. Johns, and on the 3d of November, received the surrender of this important post.

On the surrender of St. Johns, five hundred regulars and one hundred Canadians became prisoners to the provincials. There were also taken thirty-nine pieces of cannon, seven mortars, and five hundred stands of arms.

Gen. Montgomery next proceeded against Montreal, which, without resistance, capitulated. From Montreal he rapidly proceeded towards Quebec.

Before his arrival, however, Col. Arnold, who had been despatched by Gen. Washington with one thousand American troops from Cambridge, had reached Quebec by the way of the Kennebeck, a river of Maine,—had ascended the heights of Abraham, where the brave Wolfe ascended before him; but had found it necessary to retire to a place twenty miles above Quebec, where he was waiting for the arrival of Montgomery.

Seldom was there an expedition attempted during the American war, in which more hardship was endured, or more untiring perseverance manifested, than in this of Arnold's. In ascending the Kennebeck, his troops were constantly obliged to work against an impetuous current, and often to haul their batteaux up rapid currents and over dangerous falls. Nor was their march through the country, by an unexplored route of three hundred miles, less difficult or dangerous. They had swamps and woods, mountains and precipices, alternately to surpass. Added to their other trials, their provisions failed, and, to support life, they were obliged to eat their dogs, cartridge boxes, clothes and shoes.

While at the distance of one hundred miles from human habitations, they divided their whole store, about four pints of flour to a man. At thirty miles distance, they had baked and eaten their last pitiful morsel. Yet the courage and fortitude of these men continued unshaken. They were suffering for their country's cause, were toiling for wives and children, were contending for the rights and blessings of freedom. After thirty-one days of incessant toil through a hideous wilderness, they reached the habitations of men.

Dec. 1st, Montgomery having effected a junction with Arnold, commenced the siege of Quebec. After continuing the siege nearly a month to little purpose, the bold plan was adopted of attempting the place by scaling the walls. Two attacks were made, at the same time, in different quarters of the town, by Montgomery and Arnold. The attempt, however, proved unsuccessful, and, to the great loss and grief of America, fatal to the brave Montgomery. He fell while attempting to force a barrier, and with him fell two distinguished officers, Capt. M'Pherson, his aid, and Capt. Cheeseman.

After this repulse, Arnold retired about three miles from Quebec, where he continued encamped through a rigorous winter. On the return of spring, 1776, finding his forces inadequate to the reduction of Quebec, and not being reinforced, he retired. By the 18th of June, the Americans, having been compelled to relinquish one post after another, had wholly evacuated Canada.

The garrison of Quebec consisted, at the time of the above attack, of about one thousand five hundred men; the American forces were near eight hundred. The loss of the Ameri-

cans in killed and wounded, was about one hundred, and three hundred were taken prisoners.

The death of General Montgomery was deeply lamented both in Europe and America. "The most powerful speakers in the British parliament displayed their eloquence in praising his virtues and lamenting his fall." Congress directed a monument to be erected to his memory, expressive of their sense of his high patriotism and heroic conduct.

XXII. During this year, 1775, Virginia, through the indiscretion of lord Dunmore, the royal governour, was involved in difficulties little short of those to which the inhabitants of Massachusetts were subjected. From the earliest stages of the controversy with Great Britain, the Virginians had been in the foremost rank of opposition, and, in common with other provinces, had taken measures for defence.

These measures for defence, the royal governour regarded with an eye of suspicion, and attempted to thwart them by the removal of guns and ammunition, which had been stored by the people in a magazine. The conduct of the governour roused the inhabitants, and occasioned intemperate expressions of resentment.

Apprehending personal danger, lord Dunmore retired on board the Fowey man of war, from which he issued his proclamations, instituting martial law, and proffering freedom to such slaves as would leave their masters, and repair to the royal standard. Here, also, by degrees, he equipped and armed a number of vessels, and, upon being refused provisions by the provincials, from on shore, he proceeded to reduce the town of Norfolk to ashes. The loss was estimated at three hundred thousand pounds sterling. Nearly six thousand persons were deprived of their habitations.

In like manner, the royal governours of North and South Carolina thought it prudent to retire, and seek safety on board men of war. Royal government generally terminated this year throughout the country, the king's governours, for the most part, abdicating their governments, and taking refuge on board the English shipping.

XXIII. Early in the spring of 1776, Gen. Washing-

ton contemplated the expulsion of the British army from Boston, by direct assault. In a council of war, it was deemed expedient, however, rather to take possession of, and fortify Dorchester Heights, which commanded the harbour and British shipping. The night of the 4th of March was selected for the attempt. Accordingly, in the evening a covering party of eight hundred, followed by a working party of twelve hundred, with entrenching tools, took possession of the Heights, unobserved by the enemy.

Here they set themselves to work with so much activity that, by morning, they had constructed fortifications which completely sheltered them. The surprise of the British cannot easily be conceived. The English admiral, after examining the works, declared that, if the Americans were not dislodged from their position, his vessels could no longer remain in safety in the harbour. It was determined, therefore, by the British, to evacuate Boston, which they now did, and on the 17th, the British troops, under command of lord William Howe, successor of Gen. Gage, sailed for Halifax. General Washington, to the great joy of the inhabitants, army, and nation, immediately marched into the town.

The rear guard of the British was scarcely out of the town, when Washington entered it on the other side, with colours displayed, drums beating, and all the forms of victory and triumph. He was received by the inhabitants with demonstrations of joy and gratitude. Sixteen months had the people suffered the distresses of hunger, and the outrages of an insolent soldiery.

The town presented a melancholy spectacle, at the time the army of Washington entered. One thousand five hundred loyalists, with their families, had just departed on board the British fleet, tearing themselves from home and friends, for the love of the royal cause. Churches were stripped of pews and benches for fuel, shops were opened and rifled of goods to clothe the army, and houses had been pillaged by an unfeeling soldiery.

XXIV. While affairs were proceeding thus in the north, an attempt was made, in June and July, to destroy the fort on Sullivan's Island, near Charleston, S. C. by

Gen. Clinton and Sir Peter Parker. After an action of upwards of ten hours, the British were obliged to retire, having their ships nearly torn to pieces, and with a loss of two hundred killed and wounded. The loss of the Americans was but ten killed, and twenty-two wounded.

The fort was commanded by Col. Moultrie, whose garrison consisted of but three hundred and seventy-five regulars, and a few militia. On the fort was mounted twenty-six cannon of eighteen and nine pounders. The British force consisted of two fifty gun ships, and four frigates, each of twenty-eight guns, besides several smaller vessels, with three thousand troops on board. By this repulse of the British, the southern states obtained a respite from the calamities of war for two years and a half.

XXV. During these transactions in the south, the continental congress was in session, intently observing the aspect of things, and deeply revolving the probable issue of the present important contest. The idea of independence had now been broached among the people, and the way was, in a measure, prepared to bring the subject before the congress.

Accordingly, on the 8th of June, Richard Henry Lee, one of the deputies from Virginia, rose and made a motion to declare America free and independent.

The deputies of Pennsylvania and Maryland not being present, and congress being desirous, by some delay, to evince the maturity of their deliberations, adjourned the further consideration of the subject to the first of July.

On the arrival of the day assigned, the subject was resumed, and on the 4th of July, 1776, upon the report of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Philip Livingston, the thirteen confederate colonies dissolved their allegiance to the British crown, and declared themselves *Free and Independent*, under the name of the *Thirteen United States of America*.

After specifically enumerating the wrongs received, and declaring these to be sufficient grounds for a separation, they solemnly and deliberately proceeded to the act of separation, in the words following:

"We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world, for the rectitude of our intentions, and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connexion between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things, which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honours."

This declaration was received by the people with transports of joy. Public rejoicings took place in various parts of the Union. In New-York, the statue of George III. was taken down, and the lead, of which it was composed, was converted into musket balls. In Boston, the garrison was drawn up in King's street, which, from that moment, took the name of *State-street*, and thirteen salutes, by thirteen detachments, into which the troops were formed, were fired; the bells of the town were rung, in token of felicitation, and the evening concluded with the tearing in pieces, and burning the ensigns of royalty—lions, sceptres, and crowns.

XXVI. Soon after the evacuation of Boston by the British troops, Washington, believing that the possession of New-York would be with them a favourite object, determined to make it the head quarters of his army, and thereby prevent their occupation of it, if such a step had been contemplated. Accordingly, he soon removed to that city with the principal part of his troops.

XXVII. On the 10th of June, Gen. William Howe, with the army which had evacuated Boston, arrived from Halifax, off Sandy Hook. Here he was soon after joined by his brother, Admiral Lord Howe, from England, with a reinforcement. Their combined forces amounted to twenty-four thousand. On the 2d of August, they landed near the Narrows, nine miles from the city.

XXVIII. Previous to the commencement of hostilities, Admiral and Gen. Howe communicated to Washington,

that they were commissioned to settle all difficulties, between Great Britain and the colonies. But, not addressing Washington by the title due to his rank, he thought proper to decline receiving their communication. It appeared, however, that the power of these commissioners extended little farther than, in the language of their instructions, "to grant pardons to such as deserve mercy."

XXIX. The American army, in and near New-York, amounted to seventeen thousand two hundred and twenty-five men, a part of whom were encamped near Brooklyn, on Long-Island. On the 27th of August, this body of the Americans, under command of Brigadier Gen. Sullivan were attacked by the British, under Sir Henry Clinton, Percy, and Cornwallis, and were defeated with the loss of upwards of a thousand men, while the loss of the British amounted to less than four hundred. Gen. Sullivan, and Brigadier Generals Lord Sterling and Woodhull, fell into the hands of the British, as prisoners.

In the heat of the engagement, General Washington had crossed over to Brooklyn from New-York, and on seeing some of his best troops slaughtered, or taken, he uttered, it is said, an exclamation of anguish. But deep as his anguish was, and much as he wished to succour his troops, prudence forbade the calling in of his forces from New-York, as they would by no means have sufficed to render his army equal to that of the English.

XXX. After the repulse at Brooklyn, perceiving the occupation of his position on Long-Island to be of no probable importance, Washington withdrew his troops to New-York, and soon after evacuated the city, upon which, on the 12th of October, the British entered it.

Seldom, if ever, was a retreat conducted with more ability and prudence, or under more favourable auspices, than that of the American troops from Long-Island. The necessary preparations having been made, on the 29th of August, at eight in the evening, the troops began to move in the greatest silence. But they were not on board their vessels before eleven. A violent northeast wind and the ebb tide, which rendered the current very rapid, prevented the passage. The time pressed, however. Fortunately the wind suddenly veered to the northwest. They immediately made sail, and landed in New-York

Providence appeared to have watched over the Americans. About two o'clock in the morning, a thick fog, and at this season of the year extraordinary, covered all Long-Island, whereas the air was perfectly clear on the side of New-York. Notwithstanding the entreaties of his officers, Washington remained the last upon the shore. It was not till the next morning, when the sun was already high, and the fog dispelled, that the English perceived the Americans had abandoned their camp, and were sheltered from pursuit.

Washington, with a part of his troops, retired to White Plains, where he entrenched himself with great care. Here, on the morning of the 28th of September, he was attacked by Generals Clinton and Hiester. The loss in the action on each side was several hundred.—But neither party could claim any decided advantage.

While Washington was retiring from New-York, Sir William Howe seized the opportunity to reduce Fort Washington, on the Hudson, then under the command of Col. Magaw.

Nov. 16th, the English forces invested the fort, and after a severe contest, which continued nearly all day, Col. Magaw, finding his ammunition mostly exhausted, surrendered the fort, and with it about two thousand seven hundred men as prisoners of war. The surrender of fort Washington was followed, shortly after, by the surrender of Fort Lee, on the Jersey shore, the garrison abandoning it on the approach of the enemy.

XXXI. Washington, having crossed the North River, continued his retreat to Newark, Brunswick, Princeton, and Trenton; and thence crossed to the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware; Lord Cornwallis being close in his rear. This retreat through New-Jersey was attended by circumstances of deep depression. The Americans had just lost two thousand seven hundred men in Fort Washington; numbers of the militia were daily claiming to be discharged, and some of the leading characters, both in New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, were changing sides, and making peace with the enemy.

In this season of general despondency, congress recommended to each of the States, the observance of a "day of solemn fasting and humiliation before God. At the same time they called upon the States to furnish militia to reinforce the conf-

mental army, now so enfeebled as scarcely to amount to three thousand men. Soon after, one thousand five hundred Pennsylvania militia joined the American standard.

XXXII. Notwithstanding the general aspect of affairs, on the part of America, was thus forbidding, the continental congress, so far from betraying symptoms of despair, manifested more confidence than ever; and, as if success must eventually crown their enterprises, calmly occupied themselves in drawing up various *articles of confederation*, and perpetual union between the states.

Such articles were obviously necessary, that the line of distinction between the powers of the respective states, and of congress, should be exactly defined. In this way only would collisions be avoided, and the peace and harmony of the union be preserved.

Accordingly, such articles were now digested, and at the sitting of congress, Oct. 4th, 1776, were signed by all the members, and copies immediately sent to the respective assemblies of each State for approbation.

XXXIII. December 25th, at night, Washington recrossed the Delaware into New-Jersey, and, pushing his way rapidly to Trenton, surprised and took prisoners, on the following day, about one thousand Hessians, then in the service of the British. Having secured these prisoners on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware, he marched to Princeton, and attacked a party of British, who had taken refuge in the college. About sixty of the enemy were killed, and three hundred made prisoners.

The successes at Trenton and Princeton revived the desponding friends of independence. During the month of December a melancholy gloom had overspread the United States. These successes, however, seemed to brighten the prospect, and promise better things. Washington now retired to Morristown, where his army were nearly all inoculated with the small pox, that disease having appeared among the troops, and rendering such a measure necessary. The disease proved mortal but in few instances, nor was there a day in which the soldiers could not, if called upon, have fought the enemy.

XXXIV. On the opening of the campaign of 1777, the army of Washington, although congress had offered to recruits bounties in land, and greater wages, amounted to little more than seven thousand men. Towards the latter end of May, Washington quitted his winter encampment at Morristown, and, about the same time, the royal army moved from Brunswick, which they had occupied during the winter. Much shifting of the armies followed, but no definite plan of operation had apparently been settled by either.

Previous to this, however, General Howe sent a detachment of two thousand men, under command of Gen. Tryon, Gen. Agnew, and Sir William Erskine, to destroy some stores and provisions deposited at Danbury, in Connecticut. Meeting with no resistance, they reached Danbury on the 26th of April, and destroyed one thousand eight hundred barrels of beef and pork, and eight hundred of flour, two thousand bushels of grain, clothing for a regiment, one hundred hogsheads of rum, and one thousand seven hundred and ninety tents. Besides the destruction of these articles, the enemy wantonly burned eighteen houses with their furniture, murdered three unoffending inhabitants, and threw them into the flames.

At length, the British General Howe, leaving New-Jersey, embarked at Sandy Hook, with sixteen thousand men, and sailed for the Chesapeake. On the 14th of August, he landed his troops, at the head of Elk river, in Maryland.

It being now obvious that his design was the occupation of Philadelphia, Washington immediately put the American army in motion, towards that place, to prevent, if possible, its falling into the hands of the enemy.

The two armies met at Brandywine, Delaware, on the 11th of September, and after an engagement, which continued nearly all day, the Americans were compelled to retire.

The loss of the Americans in this action was estimated at three hundred killed, and six hundred wounded. Between three and four hundred, principally the wounded, were made prisoners. The loss of the British was stated at less than one hundred killed, and four hundred wounded.

Not considering the battle of Brandywine as decisive, congress, which was sitting in Philadelphia, recommended to the commander in chief to risk another engagement; preparations for which were accordingly made. Sept. 16th, the two armies drew near to each other, and the advance guards began to skirmish, when they were separated by a heavy rain, which rendered the musketry and ammunition of the armies wholly unfit for action.

XXXV. An easy access to Philadelphia was now presented to the enemy, and on the 26th Howe entered the place without molestation. The principal part of the British army was stationed at Germantown, six miles from Philadelphia. Congress adjourned to Lancaster, and Washington encamped at eighteen miles distance from Germantown.

XXXVI. Immediately after the occupation of Philadelphia, the attention of General Howe was drawn to the reduction of some forts on the Delaware, which rendered the navigation of that river unsafe to the British.—Accordingly, a part of the royal army was detached for that purpose. Washington seized the opportunity to attack the remainder at Germantown.

This attack was made Oct. 4th, but, after a severe action, the Americans were repulsed with a loss of double that of the British. The loss of the Americans was two hundred killed, six hundred wounded, and four hundred prisoners; that of the British was about one hundred killed, and five hundred wounded.

After this action, the British removed to Philadelphia, where they continued long inactive. Washington retreated to Skippack creek, and there encamped.

Great was the chagrin of Washington, on account of the repulse at Germantown, which was much increased by the auspicious commencement of the battle, and the flattering prospect of a speedy and complete victory. The ultimate failure of the Americans was attributed to the inexperience of a part of the troops, and to embarrassments arising from a fog which increased the darkness of the night. Congress, however, expressed their approbation of Washington's plan of attack, and highly applauded the courage and firmness of the troops.

XXXVII. While such was the progress of military operations in the *middle States*, important events were taking place in the north.

It has already been noticed, that in May, 1775, Ticonderoga and Crown Point had been taken by surprise, by colonels Allen and Arnold; that in the ensuing fall, Gen. Montgomery had reduced the fort of St. John's, captured Montreal, and made an ineffectual, though desperate assault upon Quebec.

On the return of spring, the American army gradually retired up the St. Lawrence, and after a loss of one post and another, in June, 1776, entirely evacuated Canada.

In the spring of 1777, it was settled in England that an invasion of the States should be attempted from the north, and a communication formed between Canada and New-York. Could such a plan have been executed, it would obviously have precluded intercourse between New-England and the more southern States.

The execution of the plan was committed to Gen. Burgoyne, who left Canada with seven thousand troops, besides a powerful train of artillery, and several tribes of Indians.

XXXVIII. On the 1st of July, Burgoyne landed and invested Ticonderoga. The American garrison here amounted to three thousand men, under command of Gen. St. Clair, an officer of high standing.

Deeming this force inadequate to maintain the post, especially as Burgoyne had taken possession of Mount Defiance, which commanded Ticonderoga, and not having provisions to sustain the army for more than twenty days, St. Clair perceived no safety for the garrison, but in precipitate flight. Accordingly, on the night of the 5th Ticonderoga was abandoned.

By a circuitous march, St. Clair continued to retreat, first into Vermont, although closely pursued, and thence to Hudson river, where, after having lost one hundred and twenty pieces of artillery, with a great quantity of military

stores, he joined Gen. Schuyler, commanding the main army of the north. After this junction, the whole army continued to retire to Saratoga and Stillwater, and at length took post on Van Shaick's Island, in the mouth of the Mohawk, on the 18th of August.

After the taking of Ticonderoga, Gen. Burgoyne, with the great body of his troops, proceeded up the lake, and destroyed the American flotilla and a considerable quantity of baggage and stores, which had been deposited at Skeensborough. Having halted at this place for nearly three weeks, he proceeded to Fort Edward, on the Hudson, where he did not arrive until July 30th, his way having been obstructed by Schuyler's army, which felled a great number of trees across the road, and demolished the bridges, while on their retreat.

XXXIX. While Gen. Burgoyne lay at Fort Edward, a detachment of his army of five hundred English and one hundred Indians, under Col. Baum, who had been sent to seize a magazine of stores at Bennington, in Vermont, was totally defeated, and Col. Baum slain, by a party of Vermont troops called Green Mountain Boys, and some New-Hampshire militia, under command of Gen. Stark.

Baum, on his arrival near Bennington, learning that the Americans were strongly entrenched at that place, halted, and despatched a messenger to Gen. Burgoyne for a reinforcement.

Gen. Stark, now on his march with a body of New-Hampshire militia, to join Gen. Schuyler, receiving intelligence of Baum's approach, altered his movement, and collected his force at Bennington.

Before the expected reinforcement could arrive, Gen. Stark, having added to his New-Hampshire corps a body of Vermont militia, determined to attack Baum in his entrenchments. Accordingly, on the 16th of August, an attack was made, which resulted in the flight of Baum's detachment at the moment in which the reinforcement of troops, despatched by Gen. Burgoyne, arrived. With the assistance of these, the battle was now renewed, but ended in the discomfiture of the British forces, and with a loss, on their part, of about seven hundred in killed and wounded. The loss of the Americans was about one hundred.

XL. The battle at Bennington greatly revived the courage of the Americans, and as greatly disappointed

the hopes of Gen. Burgoyne, and served materially to embarrass and retard his movements.

The situation of Gen. Burgoyne, at this time, was seriously perplexing, being greatly in want of provisions, and the course of wisdom and prudence being not a little difficult to determine. To retreat was to abandon the object of his expedition; to advance seemed replete with difficulty and danger. This latter step, however, at length appeared the most judicious.

Accordingly, on the 13th and 14th of September, he passed the Hudson, and advanced upon Saratoga and Stillwater. On the 17th, his army came nearly in contact with that of the American, now commanded by Gen. Gates, who had succeeded Schuyler, August 21; some skirmishing ensued, without bringing on a general battle.

Two days after, the two armies met, and a most obstinate, though indecisive engagement ensued, in which the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, between three and four hundred, and the British about six hundred.

On the 7th of October, the battle was renewed, by a movement of Gen. Burgoyne towards the left of the Americans, by which he hoped to effect his retreat to the lakes. The battle was extremely severe; and darkness only put an end to the effusion of blood.

During the night which succeeded, an attempt was made by the royal army to retreat to Fort Edward.—While preparing to march, intelligence was received that this fort was already in possession of the Americans. No avenue to escape now appeared open. Worn down with constant toil and watching, and having ascertained that he had but three days' provisions, a council of war was called, which unanimously resolved to capitulate to Gen. Gates. Preliminaries were soon after settled, and the army, consisting of five thousand seven hundred effective men, surrendered prisoners of war on the 17th of October.

Gen. Gates, immediately after the victory, despatched Col. Wilkinson, to carry the happy tidings to Congress. On being introduced into the hall of congress, he said,

* The whole British army has laid down arms at Saratoga: our sons, full of vigour and courage, expect your orders: it is for your wisdom to decide where the country may still have need of their services."

XLI. It would be difficult to describe the transports of joy which the news of the surrender of Burgoyne excited among the Americans. They now began to look forward to the future with sanguine hopes, and eagerly expected the acknowledgment of their country's independence by France and other European powers. The capitulation of Gen. Burgoyne, at Saratoga, was soon followed by an acknowledgment of the independence of America at the court of France,* and the conclusion of a formal treaty of alliance and commerce between the two countries—an event highly auspicious to the interests of America. The treaty was signed Feb. 6th.—“neither of the contracting powers to make war or peace, without the formal consent of the other.”

For more than a year, commissioners from congress, at the head of whom was Dr. Franklin, had resided at the court of France, urging the above important steps. But the success of the American struggle was yet too doubtful for that country to embroil herself in a war with Great Britain. The capture of the British army at Saratoga seemed to increase the probability that the American arms would finally triumph, and decided France to espouse her cause.

XLII. Upon the conclusion of the campaign of 1777, the British army retired into winter quarters in Philadelphia, and the American army at Valley Forge, on the Schuylkill, fifteen miles from Philadelphia.

Scarcely were the American troops established in their encampment, which consisted of huts, before they were in danger of a famine. The adjacent country was nearly exhausted, and that which it might have spared, the inhabitants concealed in the woods. At this time also, bills of credit had fallen to one fourth of their nominal value, so that one hundred dollars,

* Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States in 1782; Sweden in February, 1783; Denmark in the same month; Spain in March; Russia in July.

in paper, would command no more than twenty-five dollars, in specie. In addition to these scenes of perplexity and suffering, the army was nearly destitute of comfortable clothing.

Many, for want of shoes, walked barefoot on the frozen ground: few, if any, had blankets for the night. Great numbers sickened. Near three thousand at a time were incapable of bearing arms. While the defenders of the country were thus suffering and perishing, the royal army was enjoying all the conveniences which an opulent city afforded.

XLIII. On the alliance of America with France, it was resolved in Great Britain immediately to evacuate Philadelphia, and to concentrate the royal force in the city of New-York. In pursuance of this resolution, the royal army, on the 18th of June, passed the Delaware into New-Jersey, and continued their retreat to New-York.

General Washington, penetrating their design, had already sent forward a detachment to aid the New-Jersey militia, in impeding the progress of the enemy. With the main body of his army, he now crossed the Delaware in pursuit. June 28th, the two armies were engaged at Monmouth, sixty-four miles from Philadelphia, and after a severe contest, in which the Americans, upon the whole, obtained the advantage, were separated only by night. Gen. Washington and his army reposed on the field of battle, intending to renew the attack in the morning. But the British general, during the night, made good his retreat towards New-York.

The sufferings of both armies during this engagement, from the heat of the day, were unparalleled in the history of the revolutionary war. No less than fifty-nine British soldiers perished from heat, and several of the Americans died through the same cause. The tongues of many of the soldiers were so swollen, that it was impossible to retain them in the mouth. The loss of the Americans was eight officers and sixty-one privates killed, and about one hundred and sixty wounded; that of the British in killed, wounded, and missing, was three hundred and fifty-eight men, including officers. One hundred were taken prisoners, and one thousand deserted during the march.

XLIV. On the 1st of July, Count D'Estaing arrived at Newport, R. I. from France, with twelve ships of the line and six frigates, to act in concert with the Americans in an attempt on Rhode-Island, which had been in possession of the British since December, 1776.

Hearing of this expedition, Admiral Howe followed D'Ea

taing, and arrived in sight of Rhode-Island the day after the French fleet had entered the harbour of Newport. On the appearance of Howe, the French Admiral, instead of co-operating with the Americans, sailed out to give him battle. A storm, however, arising, separated the fleets. D'Estaing entered Boston to repair. Howe, after the storm, returned to Rhode-Island and landed Sir Henry Clinton, with four thousand troops—but, fortunately, the Americans had raised the siege of Newport the day before, and left the island.—Sir Henry Clinton soon after sailed again for New-York.

XLV. Hitherto the conquest of the States had been attempted, by proceeding from north to south; but that order, towards the close of this year, began to be inverted, and the southern States became the principal theatre on which the British conducted their offensive operations.

Georgia, being one of the weakest of the Southern States, was marked out as the first object of attack, in that quarter of the union.

In November, Col. Campbell was despatched from New-York by Gov. Clinton, with a force of two thousand men, against Savannah, the capital of that State. This expedition proved successful, and Savannah, and with it the State of Georgia itself, fell into the power of the English.

On the arrival of Campbell and his troops at Savannah, he was opposed by Gen. Howe, the American officer to whom was entrusted the defence of Georgia. His force, consisting of only 800 continentals, and a few hundred militia, was inadequate, however, to resist the enemy. After an engagement, in which the Americans killed upwards of one hundred, and took about four hundred and fifty prisoners, with several cannon, and large quantities of military stores, the capital surrendered.

XLVI. The campaign of 1779 was distinguished for nothing splendid, or decisive, on the part either of America or England.

The British seemed to have aimed at little more than to distress, plunder, and consume, it having been, early in the year, adopted as a principle upon which to proceed, "to render the colonies of as little avail as possible to their new connexions."

Actuated by these motives, an expedition was fitted out from New-York for Virginia, which, in a predatory incursion, took possession of large naval stores, magazines of provisions, and great quantities of tobacco. After enriching themselves with various kinds of booty, and burning several places, they returned to New-York.

Soon after this expedition to Virginia, a similar one, under the command of the infamous Gov. Tryon, was projected against the maritime parts of Connecticut. During this expedition, New-Haven was plundered; East-Haven, Fairfield, Norwalk, and Green's Farms, were wantonly burnt.

XLVII. The exertions of the Americans, during this campaign, were still more feeble than those of the enemy. Scarcely an expedition was planned which merits any notice, and with the exception of the reduction of Stoney Point, forty miles north of New-York, on the Hudson, scarcely any thing was accomplished of importance. The reduction of this place, July 15th, was one of the most bold enterprises which occurred in the history of the war.

At this time, Stoney Point was in the condition of a real fortress; it was furnished with a select garrison of more than six hundred men, and had stores in abundance, and defensive preparations which were formidable.

Fortified as it was, Gen. Washington ventured an attempt to reduce it. The enterprise was committed to Gen. Wayne, who, with a strong detachment of active infantry, set out towards the place, at noon. His march of fourteen miles, over high mountains, through deep morasses, and difficult defiles, was accomplished by eight o'clock in the evening.

At the distance of a mile from the Point, Gen. Wayne halted and formed his men into two columns, putting himself at the head of the right. Both columns were directed to march in order and silence, with unloaded muskets and fixed bayonets. At midnight they arrived under the walls of the fort. "An unexpected obstacle now presented itself: the deep morass, which covered the works, was at this time overflowed by the tide.

The English opened a tremendous fire of musketry and cannon loaded with grape shot: but neither the inundated morass,

nor a double palisade, nor the storm of fire that was poured upon them, could arrest the impetuosity of the Americans; they opened their way with the bayonet, prostrated whatever opposed them, scaled the fort, and the two columns met in the centre of the works. The English lost upwards of six hundred men in killed and prisoners. The conquerors abstained from pillage, and from all disorder; a conduct the more worthy, as they had still present in mind the ravages and butcheries, which their enemies had so recently committed in Virginia and Connecticut. Humanity imparted new effulgence to the victory which valour had obtained."

XLVIII. Another expedition, planned and executed this year, entitled to some notice, was one under Gen. Sullivan, against the Six Nations, which, with the exception of the Oneidas, had been induced, by the English, to take up arms against America.

At the head of between four and five thousand men, Gen. Sullivan marched into the country, up the Susquehannah, and attacked the Indians, in well constructed fortifications. The resistance of the savages was warlike. Being overpowered, however, they were obliged to flee. Gen. Sullivan, according to his instructions, proceeded to lay waste their country. Forty villages were consumed, and one hundred and sixty thousand bushels of corn were destroyed.

XLIX. It has already been stated, that the campaign of 1779 was remarkable for the feeble exertions of the Americans. Among the causes which contributed to lessen their activity, the failure of the French fleet, in every scheme undertaken for their benefit, was no inconsiderable one. America had expected much from an alliance with France, and looked to the French fleet under D'Estaing, to hasten the downfall of British power in the country. But when they perceived nothing equal to their expectation accomplished, they became despondent, and exertion was enfeebled.

But another, and a still more powerful cause of these feeble exertions, on the part of the Americans, was the daily depreciation of their bills of credit.

As the contest between England and America originated in the subject of taxation, it was early perceived by the continental congress, that the imposition of taxes, adequate to the exigences of war, even if practicable, would be impolitical. The only expedient, therefore, in their power to adopt, was the emission of bills of credit, representing specie, under a publick engagement, ultimately to redeem those bills, by an exchange of gold or silver.

Accordingly, in June, 1775, on the resolution to raise an army, congress issued bills of credit, to the amount of two millions of dollars. This emission was followed, the next month, by the issue of another million. For their redemption, the confederated colonies were pledged—each colony to provide means to pay its proportion, by the year 1779.

In the early periods of the war, the enthusiasm of the people for liberty made them comparatively indifferent to property. The cause was popular, and the publick credit good. Bills of credit, therefore, by common consent, rapidly circulated, and calculations about private interest were, in a great measure, suspended.

It was obvious, however, that there was a point, beyond which the credit of these bills would not extend. At the expiration of eighteen months from their first emission, when about twenty millions had been issued, they began to depreciate. At first the diminution of their value was scarcely perceptible, but from that time it daily increased.

Desirous of arresting the growing depreciation, congress at length resorted to loans and taxes. But loans were difficult to negotiate, and taxes, in several of the States, could not be collected. Pressed with the necessities of an army, congress found themselves obliged to continue to issue bills, after they had begun to depreciate, and to pay that depreciation, by increasing the sums emitted. By the year 1780, the amount in circulation was the overwhelming sum of two hundred millions.

The progress of this depreciation is worthy of notice.—Towards the close of 1777, the depreciation was two or three for one; in '78, five or six for one; in '79, twenty-seven or twenty-eight for one; in '80, fifty or sixty for one, in the first four or five months. From this date, the circulation of these bills was limited, but where they passed, they soon depreciated to one hundred and fifty for one, and finally several hundreds for one.

Several causes contributed to sink the value of the continental currency. The excess of its quantity at first begat a natural depreciation. This was increased by the enemy, who counterfeited the bills, and spread their forgeries through the States.

Publick agents, who received a commission to the amount of their purchases, felt it to be their interest to give a high price for all commodities. These causes co-operating with the decline of public confidence, and the return of more selfish feelings, rapidly increased the depreciation, until bills of credit, or what has been commonly called, "continental currency," became of little or no value.

The evils which resulted from this system were immense. Under it, it became extremely difficult to raise an army, and to provide necessaries for its subsistence. At the same time, it originated discontents among the officers and soldiers, since their pay, in this depreciated currency, was inadequate to the support of their families at home. "Four months pay of a private, would not procure his family a single bushel of wheat, and the pay of a colonel would not purchase oats for his horse." Under circumstances like these, it reflects the highest honour upon Washington, that his wisdom and prudence should have been able to keep an army together.

In addition to these evils, which fell so heavily upon the army, others, not less deplorable, fell upon the community. In order to prevent the growing depreciation of their bills, congress directed that they should be a legal tender. But this, while it did not much retard the regular diminution of their value, was the source of immeasurable injustice and distress.

The aged, who had retired to enjoy the fruits of their industry, found their substance but a scanty pittance. The widow was compelled to take a shilling, where a pound was her due, and the orphan was obliged to discharge an executor on the payment of sixpence on the pound. In many instances, the earnings of a long life were, in a few years, reduced to a trifling sum.

Had congress foreseen these evils, they would have guarded against them. But it was a day of poverty and experiment. They designed no injustice. They had placed before them the freedom of the country from the yoke of British dominion, and if, in their zeal to effect it, they sometimes erred, the sufferings which resulted from their ignorance have been a thousand times compensated, by the subsequent enjoyments of a free and independent people.

L. Towards the close of the year 1779, Sir Henry Clinton, committing the English garrison of New-York to Gen. Kniphausen, embarked with a force of between seven and eight thousand men, for the reduction of Charleston, South Carolina, which important object he accomplished on the 12th of May, 1780.

After a tempestuous voyage of some weeks, in which several transports were lost, the army arrived at Savannah, whence they sailed on their destined purpose. On the 2d of April, 1780, Gen. Clinton opened his batteries against Charleston. Gen. Lincoln at this time commanded the American forces of the south. Urged by the inhabitants, on the approach of the enemy, to continue in Charleston, and assist in repelling the attack, he consented to remain, and, with Gov. Rutledge, industriously forwarded preparations for defence.

Notwithstanding these preparations, the batteries of the enemy soon obtained a decided superiority over those of the town, and left but little reason to the besieged to hope that they should be able to defend the place. A council of war, held on the 21st, agreed that a retreat would probably be impracticable, and advised that offers of capitulation should be made to Gen. Clinton, which might admit of the army's withdrawing, and afford security to the persons and property of the inhabitants.

On the proposal of these terms, they were rejected. Hostilities were now renewed by the garrison, and returned with unusual ardour by the British. On the 11th of May, finding the longer defence of the place impracticable, a number of citizens addressed Gen. Lincoln, advising him to capitulate. Acquiescing in the measure, painful as it was, Gen. Lincoln again presented terms of capitulation, which being accepted, the American army, amounting to 5000; together with the inhabitants of the place, and four hundred pieces of artillery, were surrendered to the British.

The loss on both sides, during the siege, was nearly equal. Of the royal troops, seventy-six were killed, and one hundred and eighty-nine wounded. Of the Americans, eighty-nine were killed, and one hundred and forty wounded. By the articles of capitulation, the garrison was to march out of town, and to deposit their arms in front of the works; but as a mark of humiliation, which, eighteen months afterwards, was remembered and retaliated on Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, the drums were not to beat a British march, nor the colours to be uncased.

LI. Shortly after the surrender of Charleston, Sir Henry Clinton, leaving four thousand men, for the southern service, under Lord Cornwallis, returned to New-York. British garrisons were now posted in different parts of the State of South Carolina, to awe the inhabitants, and to secure their submission to the British government.

The spirit of freedom, however, still remained with

the people, nor was it easy to subdue that spirit, how much soever it might be temporarily repressed, by royal and oppressive menace.

Notwithstanding the efforts of his majesty's servants to preserve quietness, the month of July did not pass by in peace. General Sumpter, a man ardently attached to the cause of liberty, in several engagements in South Carolina, with the English and their partizans, gained great advantages over them, and in one instance, reduced a regiment—the prince of Wales—from two hundred and seventy-eight to nine.

While Sumpter was thus keeping up the spirits of the people by a succession of gallant exploits, a respectable force was advancing through the middle States, for the relief of their southern brethren.

LII. The southern army, now placed under the command of Gates, the hero of Saratoga—General Lincoln having been superseded, amounted to four thousand; but of these scarcely one thousand were regular troops, the rest consisting of militia, from North Carolina, Maryland, and Virginia.

As this army approached South Carolina, Lord Rawdon, who commanded on the frontier, under Lord Cornwallis, concentrated the royal forces, two thousand in number, at Camden, one hundred and twenty miles northwest from Charleston. Here Cornwallis, on learning the movements of the Americans, joined him.

On the morning of the 16th of August, the two armies met, and a severe and general action ensued, in which, through the unpardonable failure of the militia, the British gained a decided advantage.

At the first onset, a large body of the Virginia militia, under a charge of the British infantry with fixed bayonets, threw down their arms, and fled. A considerable part of the North-Carolina militia followed their unworthy example. But the continental troops evinced the most unyielding firmness, and pressed forward with unusual ardour. Never did men acquit themselves more honourably. They submitted only when forsaken by their brethren in arms, and when overpowered by numbers.

In this battle, the brave Baron de Kalb, second in command, at the head of the Marylanders, fell, covered with wounds, which he survived only a few days. De Kalb was a German by birth, and had formerly served in the armies of the French. In consideration of his distinguished merit, as an officer and soldier, congress resolved that a monument should be erected to his memory at Annapolis.

The battle of Camden was exceedingly bloody. The field of battle, the road and swamps, for some distance, were covered with wounded and slain. The number of Americans killed, although not certain, probably amounted to between six and seven hundred, and the wounded and prisoners to one thousand three hundred, or one thousand four hundred. The British stated their loss to be only three hundred and twenty-four, in killed and wounded; but it was probably much greater.

LIII. "The disaster of the army, under Gen. Gates, overspread, at first, the face of American affairs with a dismal gloom; but the day of prosperity to the United States began, as will appear in the sequel, from that moment to dawn.

"Their prospects brightened, while those of their enemies were obscured by disgrace, broken by defeat, and, at last, covered with ruin. Elated with their victories, the conquerors grew more insolent and rapacious, while the real friends of independence became resolute and determined."

LIV. While the campaign of 1780 was thus filled up with important events in the southern department, it passed away in the northern States, in successive disappointments, and reiterated distresses.

In June, a body of five thousand of the enemy, under Gen. Kniphausen, entered New-Jersey, and, in addition to plundering the country, wantonly burnt several villages.

Besides these predatory incursions, by which the inhabitants suffered alarm, distress, and destruction of property, they suffered greatly, also, from the constantly diminishing value of their paper currency, and from unfavourable crops.

The situation of Gen. Washington, often during the war embarrassing, had been distressing through the winter, in his encampment at Morristown. The cold was more intense than it

had ever been known to be before in this climate, within the memory of the oldest inhabitant. The winter to this day bears the distinctive epithet of the *hard winter*. The army suffered extremely, and often had Washington the prospect before him of being obliged to break up his encampment, and disband his soldiers.

The return of spring brought little alleviation to their distress. Great disorder pervaded the departments for supplying the army. Abuses crept in, frauds were practised, and notwithstanding the poverty of the country, economy, on the part of the commissaries, was exiled.

In May, a committee from congress visited the army, and reported to that body, an account of the distresses and disorders conspicuously prevalent. In particular, they stated, that "the army was unpaid for five months—that it seldom had more than six days' provisions in advance, and was, on several occasions, for sundry successive days without meat—that the medical department had neither sugar, coffee, tea, chocolate, wine, nor spirituous liquors of any kind; and that every department of the army was without money, and had not even the shadow of credit left."

LV. But under all this tide of evils, there appeared no disposition, in public bodies, to purchase their relief by concession. They seemed, on the contrary, to rise in the midst of their distresses, and to gain firmness and strength by the pressure of calamity.

LVI. Fortunately for the Americans, as it seemed, M. de Ternay arrived at Rhode-Island, July 10th, from France, with a squadron of seven sail of the line, five frigates, and five smaller armed vessels, with several transports, and six thousand men, all under command of Lieutenant General Count de Rochambeau. Great was the joy excited by this event, and high raised expectations were indulged from the assistance of so powerful a force against the enemy. But the British fleet, in our waters, was still superiour, and that of the French, and the French army, were, for a considerable time, incapacitated from co-operating with the Americans, by being blocked up at Rhode-Island.

The arrival of the French fleet at Newport, was greeted by the citizens with every demonstration of joy. The town was illuminated, and congratulatory addresses were exchanged.—

As a symbol of friendship and affection for the allies, General Washington recommended to the American officers to wear black and white cockades, the ground to be of the first colour, and the relief of the second.

LVII. The fortress of West-Point, on the Hudson, sixty miles north of New-York, and its importance to the Americans, has already been noticed. Of this fortress, Gen. Arnold had solicited and obtained the command. Soon after assuming the command, Arnold entered into negotiations with Sir Henry Clinton, to make such a disposition of the forces in the fortress, as that the latter might easily take possession of it by surprise. Fortunately for America, this base plot was seasonably discovered to prevent the ruinous consequences that must have followed. Arnold, however, escaped to the enemy, loaded with infamy and disgrace. Andre, the agent of the British, in this negotiation, was taken, and justly expiated his crime on the gallows, as a spy.

Major Andre, at this time adjutant-general of the British army, was an officer extremely young, but high-minded, brave, and accomplished. He was transported in a vessel called the *Vulture*, up the North River, as near to West Point as was practicable, without exciting suspicion. On the 21st of September, at night, a boat was sent from the shore to bring him. On its return, Arnold met him at the beach, without the posts of either army. Their business was not finished till too near the dawn of day for Andre to return to the *Vulture*. He, therefore, lay concealed within the American lines. During the day, the *Vulture* found it necessary to change her position, and Andre, not being able now to get on board, was compelled to attempt his return to New-York by land.

Having changed his military dress for a plain coat, and received a passport from Arnold, under the assumed name of John Anderson, he passed the guards and outposts without suspicion. On his arrival at Tarrytown, a village thirty miles north of New-York, in the vicinity of the first British posts, he was met by three militia soldiers—John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wert. He showed them his passport, and they suffered him to continue his route. Immediately after this, one of these three men thinking that he perceived something singular in the person of the traveller, called him back. Andre asked them where they were from? "From down below," they replied, intending to say from New-York. Too

frank to suspect a snare, Andre immediately answered, "and so am I."

Upon this they arrested him, when he declared himself to be a British officer, and offered them his watch, and all the gold he had with him, to be released. These soldiers were poor and obscure, but they were not to be bribed. Resolutely refusing his offers, they conducted him to Lieut. Col. Jameson, their commanding officer.

Jameson injudiciously permitted Andre, still calling himself Anderson, to write to Arnold, who immediately escaped on board the Vulture, and took refuge in New-York.

Washington, on his way to head-quarters, from Connecticut, where he had been to confer with Count de Rochambeau—providentially happened to be at West Point, just at this time. After taking measures to insure the safety of the fort, he appointed a board, of which Gen. Greene was president, to decide upon the condition and punishment of Andre.

After a patient hearing of the case, September 20th, in which every feeling of kindness, liberality, and generous sympathy was strongly evinced, the board, upon his own confession, unanimously pronounced Andre a spy, and declared, that agreeably to the laws and usages of nations, he ought to suffer death.

Major Andre had many friends in the American army, and even Washington would have spared him, had duty to his country permitted. Every possible effort was made by Sir Henry Clinton in his favour, but it was deemed important that the decision of the board of war should be carried into execution. When Major Andre was apprised of the sentence of death, he made a last appeal in a letter to Washington, that he might be shot, rather than die on a gibbet.

"Buoyed above the terrour of death," said he, "by the consciousness of a life devoted to honourable pursuits, and stained with no action that can give me remorse, I trust that the request I make to your excellency at this serious period, and which is to soften my last moments, will not be rejected. Sympathy towards a soldier will surely induce your excellency, and a military friend, to adapt the mode of my death to the feelings of a man of honour. Let me hope, sir, that if aught in my character impresses you with esteem towards me, as the victim of policy and resentment, I shall experience the operation of those feelings in your breast by being informed that I am not to die on a gibbet."

This letter of Andre roused the sympathies of Washington, and had he only been concerned, the prisoner would have been pardoned and released. But the interests of his country were at stake, and the sternness of justice demanded that private

feelings should be sacrificed. Upon consulting his officers on the propriety of Major Andre's request, to receive the death of a soldier—to be shot—it was deemed necessary to deny it, and to make him an example. On the 2d of October, this unfortunate young man expired on the gallows, while foes and friends universally lamented his untimely end.

As a reward to Paulding, Williams, and Van Wert, for their virtuous and patriotick conduct, Congress voted to each of them an annuity of two hundred dollars and a silver medal, on one side of which was a shield with this inscription—"fidelity,"—and on the other, the following motto, "*vincit amor patriæ*"—the love of country conquers.

Arnold, the miserable wretch, whose machinations led to the melancholy fate Andre experienced, escaped to New-York, where, as the price of his dishonour, he received the commission of *brigadier-general*, and the sum of *ten thousand pounds sterling*. This last boon was the grand secret of Arnold's fall from virtue; his vanity and extravagance had led him into expenses which it was neither in the power nor will of congress to support. He had involved himself in debt, from which he saw no hope of extricating himself; and his honour, therefore, was bartered for British gold.

LVIII. Gen. Washington, having learned whither Arnold had fled, deemed it possible still to take him, and to bring him to the just reward of his treachery; and in so doing to save the life of Andre. But the attempt to accomplish this object failed of success.

Having matured the plan, Washington sent to Major Lee to repair to head quarters, at Tappan, on the Hudson. "I have sent for you," said Gen. Washington, "in the expectation that you have some one in your corps, who is willing to undertake a delicate and hazardous project. Whoever comes forward will confer great obligations upon me personally, and, in behalf of the United States, I will reward him amply. No time is to be lost; he must proceed, if possible, to-night. I intend to seize Arnold, and save Andre."

Major Lee named a sergeant-major of his corps, by the name of *Champe*—a native of Virginia, a man full of bone and muscle—with a countenance grave, thoughtful, and taciturn—with tried courage, and inflexible perseverance.

Champe was sent for by Major Lee, and the plan proposed. This was for him to desert—to escape to New-York—to appear friendly to the enemy—to watch Arnold, and, upon some fit opportunity, with the assistance of some one whom Champe could trust, to seize him, and conduct him to a place on the

river, appointed, where boats should be in readiness to bear them away.

Champe listened to the plan attentively—but, with the spirit of a man of honour and integrity, replied—“that it was not danger nor difficulty that deterred him from immediately accepting the proposal, but the *ignominy of desertion*, and the *hypocrisy of enlisting with the enemy*!”

To these objections Lee replied, that although he would appear to desert, yet as he obeyed the call of his commander-in-chief, his departure could not be considered as criminal, and that, if he suffered in reputation for a time, the matter would one day be explained to his credit. As to the second objection, it was urged, that to bring such a man as Arnold to justice—loaded with guilt as he was—and to save Andre—so young—so accomplished—so beloved—to achieve so much good in the cause of his country—was more than sufficient to balance a wrong, existing only in appearance.

The objections of Champe were at length surmounted, and he accepted the service. It was now eleven o'clock at night. With his instructions in his pocket, the sergeant returned to camp; and, taking his cloak, valise, and orderly book, drew his horse from the picket, and mounted, putting himself upon fortune.

Scarcely had half an hour elapsed, before Capt. Carnes, the officer of the day, waited upon Lee, who was vainly attempting to rest, and informed him, that one of the patrol had fallen in with a dragoon, who being challenged, put spurs to his horse and escaped. Lee, hoping to conceal the flight of Champe, or at least to delay pursuit, complained of fatigue, and told the captain that the patrol had probably mistaken a countryman for a dragoon. Carnes, however, was not thus to be quieted; and he withdrew to assemble his corps. On examination, it was found that Champe was absent. The captain now returned, and acquainted Lee with the discovery, adding that he had detached a party to pursue the deserter, and begged the major's written orders.

After making as much delay as practicable, without exciting suspicion, Lee delivers his orders, in which he directed the party to take Champe if possible. “Bring him alive,” said he, “that he may suffer in the presence of the army; but kill him if he resists, or if he escapes after being taken.”

A shower of rain fell soon after Champe's departure, which enabled the pursuing dragoons to take the trail of his horse, his shoes, in common with those of the horses of the army, being made in a peculiar form, and each having a private mark, which was to be seen in the path.

Middleton, the leader of the pursuing party, left the camp a few minutes past twelve, so that Champe had the start of but little more than an hour—a period by far shorter than had been contemplated. During the night, the dragoons were often delayed in the necessary halts to examine the road; but, on the coming of morning, the impression of the horse's shoes was so apparent, that they pressed on with rapidity. Some miles above Bergen, a village three miles north of New-York, on the opposite side of the Hudson, on ascending a hill, Champe was descried, not more than half a mile distant. Fortunately, Champe descried his pursuers at the same moment, and, conjecturing their object, put spurs to his horse, with the hope of escape.

By taking a different road, Champe was for a time lost sight of—but, on approaching the river, he was again descried.—Aware of his danger, he now lashed his valise, containing his clothes and orderly book, to his shoulders, and prepared himself to plunge into the river, if necessary. Swift was his flight, and swift the pursuit. Middleton and his party were within a few hundred yards, when Champe threw himself from his horse and plunged into the river, calling aloud upon some British galleys, at no great distance, for help. A boat was instantly despatched to the sergeant's assistance, and a fire commenced upon the pursuers. Champe was taken on board, and soon after carried to New-York, with a letter from the captain of the galley, stating the past scene, all of which he had witnessed.

The pursuers having recovered the sergeant's horse and cloak, returned to camp, where they arrived about 3 o'clock the next day. On their appearance with the well known horse, the soldiers made the air resound with the acclamations that the scoundrel was killed. The agony of Lee, for a moment, was past description, lest the faithful, honourable, intrepid Champe had fallen. But the truth soon relieved his fears, and he repaired to Washington to impart to him the success thus far of his plan.

Soon after the arrival of Champe in New-York, he was sent to Sir Henry Clinton, who treated him kindly, but detained him more than an hour in asking him questions, to answer some of which, without exciting suspicion, required all the art the sergeant was master of. He succeeded, however, and Sir Henry gave him a couple of guineas, and recommended him to Arnold, who was wishing to procure American recruits. Arnold received him kindly, and proposed to him to join his legion; Champe, however, expressed his wish to retire from war; but assured the general, that if he should change his mind, he would enlist.

Champe found means to communicate to Lee an account of his adventures ; but, unfortunately, he could not succeed in taking Arnold, as was wished, before the execution of Andre.— Ten days before Champe brought his project to a conclusion, Lee received from him his final communication, appointing the third subsequent night for a party of dragoons to meet him at Hoboken, opposite New-York, when he hoped to deliver Arnold to the officers.

Champe had enlisted into Arnold's legion, from which time he had every opportunity he could wish, to attend to the habits of the general. He discovered that it was his custom to return home about twelve every night, and that, previously to going to bed, he always visited the garden. During this visit, the conspirators were to seize him, and, being prepared with a gag, they were to apply the same instantly.

Adjoining the house in which Arnold resided, and in which it was designed to seize and gag him, Champe had taken off several of the pailings and replaced them, so that with ease, and without noise, he could readily open his way to the adjoining alley. Into this alley he intended to convey his prisoner, aided by his companion, one of two associates, who had been introduced by the friend to whom Champe had been originally made known by letter from the commander-in-chief, and with whose aid and counsel he had so far conducted the enterprise. His other associate was, with the boat, prepared at one of the wharves on the Hudson river, to receive the party.

Champe and his friend intended to place themselves each under Arnold's shoulder, and thus to bear him through the most unfrequented alleys and streets to the boat, representing Arnold, in case of being questioned, as a drunken soldier, whom they were conveying to the guard-house.

When arrived at the boat, the difficulties would be all surmounted, there being no danger nor obstacle in passing to the Jersey shore. These particulars, as soon as made known to Lee, were communicated to the commander-in-chief, who was highly gratified with the much desired intelligence. He desired Major Lee to meet Champe, and to take care that Arnold should not be hurt.

The day arrived, and Lee, with a party of accoutred horses, (one for Arnold, one for the sergeant, and the third for his associate, who was to assist in securing Arnold,) left the camp, never doubting the success of the enterprise, from the tenour of the last received communication. The party reached Hoboken about midnight, where they were concealed in the adjoining wood—Lee, with three dragoons, stationing himself near

the shore of the river.—Hour after hour passed, but no boat approached.

At length the day broke, and the major retired to his party, and, with his led horses, returned to the camp, where he proceeded to head-quarters to inform the general of the much lamented disappointment, as mortifying as inexplicable. Washington, having perused Champe's plan and communication, had indulged the presumption, that at length the object of his keen and constant pursuit was sure of execution, and did not dissemble the joy which such a conviction produced. He was chagrined at the issue, and apprehended that his faithful sergeant must have been detected in the last scene of his tedious and difficult enterprise.

In a few days, Lee received an anonymous letter from Champe's patron and friend, informing him, that on the day preceding the night fixed for the execution of the plot, Arnold had removed his quarters to another part of the town, to superintend the embarkation of troops, preparing, as was rumoured, for an expedition to be directed by himself; and that the American legion, consisting chiefly of American deserters, had been transferred from their barracks to one of the transports, it being apprehended that if left on shore, until the expedition was ready, many of them might desert.

Thus it happened that John Champe, instead of crossing the Hudson that night, was safely deposited on board one of the fleet of transports, from whence he never departed, until the troops under Arnold landed in Virginia. Nor was he able to escape from the British army, until after the junction of Lord Cornwallis at Petersburg, when he deserted; and proceeding high up into Virginia, he passed into North Carolina, near the Saura towns, and, keeping in the friendly districts of that State, safely joined the army soon after it had passed the Congaree, in pursuit of Lord Rawdon.

His appearance excited extreme surprise among his former comrades, which was not a little increased, when they saw the cordial reception he met with from the late major, now Lieutenant-Col. Lee. His whole story was soon known to the corps, which re-produced the love and respect of officers and soldiers, heretofore invariably entertained for the sergeant, heightened by universal admiration of his late daring and arduous attempt.

Champe was introduced to Gen. Greene, who very cheerfully complied with the promise made by the commander in chief, so far as is his power; and, having provided the sergeant with a good horse and money for his journey, sent him to Gen. Washington, who munificently anticipated every desire of the

sergeant, and presented him with a discharge from further service, lest he might, in the vicissitudes of war, fall into the hands of the enemy, when, if recognized, he was sure to die on a gibbet.

We shall only add, respecting the after life of this interesting adventurer, that when Gen. Washington was called by President Adams, in 1798, to the command of the army, prepared to defend the country, against French hostility, he sent to Lieutenant Col. Lee, to inquire for Champe; being determined to bring him into the field at the head of a company of infantry. Lee sent to Loudon county, Virginia, where Champe settled after his discharge from the army; when he learned that the gallant soldier had removed to Kentucky, where he soon after died.

LIX. The year 1781 opened with an event extremely afflicting to Gen. Washington, and which, for a time, seriously endangered the American army. This was the revolt of the whole Pennsylvania line of troops, at Morristown, to the number of one thousand three hundred. The cause of this mutiny was want of pay, clothing, and provisions. Upon examination of the grievances of the troops, by a committee from congress, their complaints were considered to be founded in justice. Upon their being redressed, the troops, whose time of service had expired, returned home, and the rest cheerfully repaired again to camp.

Gen. Wayne, who commanded these troops, and who was greatly respected by them, used every exertion to quiet them, but in vain. In the ardour of remonstrance with them, he cocked his pistol, and turned it towards them. Instantly, an hundred bayonets were directed towards him, and the men cried out, "we love you, we respect you; but you are a dead man, if you fire. Do not mistake us; we are not going to the enemy. On the contrary, were they now to come out, you should see us fight under your orders, with as much resolution and alacrity as ever."

Leaving the camp, the mutineers proceeded in a body to Princeton. Thither, Sir Henry Clinton, who had heard of the revolt, sent agents to induce them to come over to the British, with the promise of large rewards.

But these soldiers loved their country's cause too well to listen to proposals so reprehensible. They were suffering privations which could no longer be sustained; but they spurned

with disdain, the offer of the enemy. They also seized the agents of the British, and nobly delivered them up to Gen. Wayne to be treated as spies.

LX. In the midst of these troubles, arising from discontents of the troops, news arrived of great depredations in Virginia, by Arnold, who had left New-York for the south, with one thousand six hundred men, and a number of armed vessels. Extensive outrages were committed by these troops in that part of the country. Large quantities of tobacco, salt, rum, &c. were destroyed. In this manner did Arnold show the change of spirit, which had taken place in his breast, and his fidelity to his new engagements.

Upon receiving news of these depredations, at the request of Gen. Washington, a French squadron, from Rhode-Island, was sent to cut off Arnold's retreat. Ten of his vessels were destroyed, and a forty-four gun ship was captured. Shortly after this, an engagement took place off the Capes of Virginia, between the French and English squadrons, which terminated so far to the advantage of the English, that Arnold was saved from imminent danger of falling into the hands of his exasperated countrymen.

LXI. After the unfortunate battle at Camden, August 16th, 1780, congress thought proper to remove Gen. Gates, and to appoint Gen. Greene in his place. In December, 1780, Greene assumed the command. The army at this time was reduced to two thousand men, more than half of whom were militia, and all were miserably fed and clothed.

With this force Gen. Greene took the field against a superior regular force, flushed with successive victories through a whole campaign. Soon after taking the command, he divided his force, and, with one part, sent Gen. Morgan to the western extremity of South Carolina.

At this time, Lord Cornwallis was nearly prepared to invade North Carolina. Unwilling to leave such an enemy as Morgan in his rear, he despatched Col. Tarleton to engage Gen. Morgan, and "to push him to the utmost."

LXII. January 17th 1781, these two detachments met, when was fought the spirited battle of the Cowpens, in which the American arms signally triumphed.

In this memorable battle, the British lost upwards of one hundred killed, among whom were ten commissioned officers, and two hundred wounded. More than five hundred prisoners fell into the hands of the Americans, besides two pieces of artillery, twelve standards, eight hundred muskets, thirty-five baggage waggons, one hundred dragoon horses; the loss of the Americans was no more than twelve killed and sixty wounded.

The victory of the Cowpens must be reckoned as one of the most brilliant achieved during the revolutionary war. The force of Morgan hardly amounted to five hundred, while that of his adversary exceeded one thousand. Morgan's brigade were principally militia, while Tarleton commanded the flower of the British army.

LXIII. Upon receiving the intelligence of Tarleton's defeat, Cornwallis abandoned the invasion of North Carolina for the present, and marched in pursuit of Gen. Morgan.

Greene, suspecting his intentions, hastened with his army to join Morgan. This junction was at length effected, at Guilford Court-House, after a fatiguing march, in which Cornwallis nearly overtook him, and was prevented only by the obstruction of a river.

After his junction with Morgan, Gen. Greene, with his troops and baggage, crossed the river Dan, and entered Virginia, again narrowly escaping the British, who were in close pursuit.

LXIV. Satisfied with having driven Greene from North Carolina, Cornwallis retired to Hillsborough, where, erecting the royal standard, he issued his proclamation, inviting the loyalists to join him. Many accepted his invitation. At the same time he despatched Tarleton, with four hundred and fifty men, to secure the countenance of a body of loyalists, collected between the Hawe and Deep rivers.

LXV. Apprehensive of Tarleton's success, Gen. Greene, on the 18th of February, crossed the Dan

into Carolina, and despatched Generals Pickens and Lee to watch the movements of the enemy. These officers were unable to bring Tarleton to an engagement. Gen. Greene, having now received a reinforcement, making his army four thousand five hundred strong, concentrated his forces, and directed his march towards Guilford Court-House, whither Lord Cornwallis had retired.

Here, on the 8th of Marth, a general engagement took place, in which victory, after alternately passing to the banners of each army, finally decided in favour of the British.

The British loss, in this battle, exceeded five hundred in killed and wounded, among whom were several of the most distinguished officers. The American loss was about four hundred, in killed and wounded, of which more than three fourths fell upon the continentals. Though the numerical force of General Greene nearly doubled that of Cornwallis, yet, when we consider the difference between these forces, the shameful conduct of the North Carolina militia, who fled at the first fire, the desertion of the second Maryland regiment, and that a body of reserve was not brought into action, it will appear that our numbers actually engaged, but little exceeded that of the enemy.

LXVI. Notwithstanding the issue of the above battle, Gen. Greene took the bold resolution of leading back his forces to South Carolina, and of attacking the enemies' strong post at Camden, in that State. Accordingly, on the 9th of April, he put his troops in motion, and on the 20th, encamped at Logtown, within sight of the enemies' works. Lord Rawdon, at this time, held the command of Camden, and had a force of only nine hundred men. The army of Gen. Greene—a detachment having been made for another expedition under Gen. Lee—amounted scarcely to twelve hundred men of all classes.

On the 25th, Lord Rawdon drew out his forces, and the two armies engaged. For a season, victory seemed inclined to the Americans, but, in the issue, Gen. Greene found himself obliged to retreat.

The American loss in killed, wounded, and missing, was two hundred and sixty-eight; the English loss was nearly equal,

The failure of the victory in this battle, was not attributable, as in some cases, to the flight of the militia, when danger had scarcely begun—but Gen. Greene experienced the mortification of seeing a regiment of veterans give way to an inferior force, when every circumstance was in their favour—the very regiment too, which, at the battle of the Cowpens, behaved with such heroic bravery.

LXVII. Although the British arms gained the victory of Camden, the result of the whole was favourable to the American cause. Gen. Lee, with a detachment despatched for that purpose, while Greene was marching against Camden, took possession of an important post at Mottes, near the confluence of the Congaree and Santee rivers. This auspicious event was followed by the evacuation of Camden, by Lord Rawdon, and of the whole line of British posts, with the exception of Ninety-Six and Charleston.

LXVIII. Ninety-Six, one hundred and forty-seven miles north-west from Charleston, was garrisoned by five hundred and sixty men. Against this post, after the battle of Camden, Gen. Greene took up his march, and, on the 22d of May, sat down before it. Soon after the siege of it had been commenced, intelligence arrived that Lord Rawdon had been reinforced by troops from Ireland, and was on his march with two thousand men for its relief. Greene now determined upon an assault, but in this he failed, with a loss of one hundred and fifty men.

Soon after his arrival at Ninety-Six, Lord Rawdon deemed it expedient to evacuate this post. Retiring himself to Charleston, his army encamped at the Eutaw Springs, forty miles from Charleston.

LXIX. Gen. Greene, having retired to the high hills of Santee, to spend the hot and sickly season, in September approached the enemy at the Eutaw Springs. On the morning of the 8th, he advanced upon him, and the battle between the two armies became general. The contest was sustained with equal bravery on both sides—victory seeming to decide in favour of neither.

The British lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about one

thousand one hundred. The loss of the Americans was five hundred and fifty-five.

LXX. The battle of the Eutaw Springs was the last general action that took place in South Carolina, and nearly finished the war in that quarter. The enemy now retired to Charleston.

Thus closed the campaign of 1781, in South Carolina. Few commanders have ever had greater difficulties to encounter than General Greene; and few have ever, with the same means, accomplished so much. Though never so decisively victorious, yet the battles which he fought, either from necessity or choice, were always so well managed as to result to his advantage.

Not unmindful of his eminent services, Congress presented him with a British standard, and a gold medal, emblematical of the action at the Eutaw Springs, which restored a sister State to the American Union.

LXXI. After the battle of Guilford, between Greene and Cornwallis, noticed above, the latter, leaving South Carolina in charge of Lord Rawdon, commenced his march towards Petersburg, in Virginia, where he arrived on the 20th of May. Having received several reinforcements, he found himself with an army of eight thousand, and indulged the pleasing anticipations that Virginia would soon be made to yield to his arms.

Early in the spring, Gen. Washington had detached the Marquis de la Fayette, with three thousand men, to co-operate with the French fleet, in Virginia, in the capture of Arnold, who was committing depredations in that State. On the failure of this expedition, La Fayette marched back as far as the head of Elk river.—Here he received orders to return to Virginia to oppose the British. On his return, hearing of the advance of Cornwallis, towards Petersburg, twenty miles below Richmond, he hastened his march to prevent, if possible, the junction of Cornwallis, with a reinforcement, under Gen. Phillips. In this, however, he failed.

The junction being effected at Petersburg, Cornwallis moved towards James' river, which he crossed, with the intention of forcing the marquis to a battle.

Prudence forbade the marquis risking an engagement, with an enemy of more than twice his force. He therefore retreated, and, notwithstanding the uncommon efforts of his lordship to prevent it, he effected a junction with Gen. Wayne, who had been despatched by Washington, with eight hundred Pennsylvania militia, to his assistance. After this reinforcement, the disproportion between himself and his adversary was still too great to permit him to think of battle. He continued his retreat, therefore, displaying, in all his manœuvres, the highest prudence.

LXXII. While these things were transpiring in Virginia, matters of high moment seemed to be in agitation in the north, which, not long after, were fully developed.

Early in May, 1781, a plan of the whole campaign had been arranged by Gen. Washington, in consultation, at Wethersfield, Connecticut, with Generals Knox and Du Portail, on the part of the Americans, and Count de Rochambeau, on the part of France. The grand project of the season was to lay siege to New-York, in concert with a French fleet, expected on the coast in August.

In the prosecution of this plan, the French troops were marched from Rhode-Island, and joined Gen. Washington, who had concentrated his forces at Kingsbridge, fifteen miles above New-York. All things were preparing for a vigorous siege, and, towards this strongest hold of the enemy, the eyes of all were intently directed.

In this posture of things, letters addressed to Gen. Washington, informed him that the expected French fleet, under the Count de Grasse, would soon arrive in the Chesapeake, and that this, instead of New-York, was the place of its destination.

Disappointed in not having the co-operation of such a force; disappointed also in not receiving the full quota of militia, which had been ordered from New-England and New-Jersey; and, moreover, learning that Clinton had been reinforced in New-York, by the arrival of three thousand Germans; Washington was induced to change the plan of operations, and to direct his attention to

Cornwallis, who, from pursuing the Marquis de la Fayette, had retired to Yorktown, near the mouth of York river, and had fortified that place.

LXXIII. Having decided upon this measure, on the 19th of July he drew off his forces, and commenced his march, at the same time strongly impressing Clinton, by every art in his power, that an attack would soon be made upon New-York. So successfully was this deception practised, that Washington was some distance on his way towards Virginia, before Clinton suspected that his object was any other than to draw him from New-York, to fight him in the field, with superiour forces.

Having halted at Philadelphia a few days, the army continued its march to the head of Elk river, whence it embarked for Williamsburg, then the head quarters of the Marquis de la Fayette, where it arrived September 25th.

Gen. Washington and Count de Rochambeau preceded the troops ten days, and, to their great joy, found that the Count de Grasse had entered the Capes on the 30th of the preceding month, with twenty-eight sail, and three thousand troops.

On the arrival of these two generals at Williamsburg, a vessel was in readiness to convey them on board the *Ville de Paris*, the flag-ship of the Count de Grasse, where a council was held to determine on future operations.

LXXIV. These being settled, the combined armies, amounting to twelve thousand men, moved upon Yorktown and Gloucester, September 30th, and the Count de Grasse, with his fleet, proceeded up to the mouth of York river, to prevent Cornwallis either from retreating, or receiving assistance.

Yorktown is a small village on the south side of York river, whose southern banks are high, and in whose waters a ship of the line may ride in safety. Gloucester Point is a piece of land on the opposite shore, projecting far into the river. Both these posts were occupied by Cornwallis—the main body of the army being at York, under the immediate command of his lordship, and a detachment of six hundred at Gloucester Point, under Lieut. Col. Tarleton.

On the 6th of October, Washington's heavy ordnance, &c. arrived, and the siege was commenced in form. Sceldom, if ever, during the revolutionary struggle, did the American commander in chief, or his troops, appear before the enemy with more cool determination, or pursue him with more persevering ardour, than at the siege of Yorktown. With the fall of Cornwallis, it was perceived that the hopes of Great Britain, successfully to maintain the contest, must nearly expire; with this in prospect there was no wavering of purpose, and no intermission of toil.

On the 19th of October, the memorable victory over Cornwallis was achieved; and his whole army was surrendered, amounting to more than seven thousand prisoners of war, together with a park of artillery of one hundred and sixty pieces, the greater part of which were brass.

Articles of capitulation being mutually signed and ratified, Gen. Lincoln was appointed, by the commander in chief, to receive the submission of the royal army, in the same manner, in which, eighteen months before, Cornwallis had received that of the Americans at Charleston.

The spectacle is represented as having been impressive and affecting. The road through which the captive army marched was lined with spectators, French and American. On one side, the commander in chief, surrounded with his suite, and the American staff, took his station; on the other side, opposite to him, was the Count de Rochambeau, in the like manner attended.

The captive army approached, moving slowly in column, with grace and precision. Universal silence was observed amidst the vast concourse, and the utmost decency prevailed; exhibiting an awful sense of the vicissitudes of human life, mingled with commiseration for the unhappy.

Every eye was now turned, searching for the British commander in chief, anxious to look at the man, heretofore so much the object of their dread. All were disappointed. Cornwallis, unable to bear up against the humiliation of marching at the head of his garrison, constituted Gen. O'Hara his representative on the occasion.

The post of Gloucester, falling with that of York, was delivered up the same day, by Lieut Col. Tarkenton.

at the termination of the siege, the besieging army amounted sixteen thousand. The British force was put down at seven thousand one hundred and seven, of which only four thousand and seven rank and file are stated to have been fit for

XXV. Five days after the surrender of Cornwallis, Henry Clinton made his appearance off the Capes of Virginia with a reinforcement of seven thousand men; receiving intelligence of his lordship's fate, he returned to New-York.

Cornwallis, in his despatches to Sir Henry, more than hinted that his fall had been produced by a too firm reliance on promises, that no pains were taken to fulfil. Clinton had promised Cornwallis that this auxiliary force should leave New-York on the 5th of October, but, for reasons never explained, it did not sail until the 19th, the very day that decided the fate of the

XXVI. Nothing could exceed the joy of the American people, at this great and important victory, over Cornwallis. Exultation broke forth from one extremity of the country to the other. The remembrance of the past gave place in all minds to the most brilliant prospects. It was confidently anticipated, that the affair of Yorktown would rapidly hasten the acknowledgment of American Independence—an event, for which the people had been toiling and bleeding through so many campaigns.

In all parts of the United States, solemn festivals and rejoicings celebrated the triumph of American fortune. The names of Washington, Rochambeau, De Grasse, and La Fayette, resounded every where. To the unanimous acclaim of the people, Congress joined the authority of its resolves. It addressed orders to the generals, officers, and soldiers—presented British flags—ordered the erection of a marble column—and went in procession to church, to render public thanksgiving to God for the recent victory. The 30th of December was appointed the day of national thanksgiving.

XVII. While the combined armies were advancing on the siege of Yorktown, an excursion was made from New-York, by Gen. Arnold, against New-London, in his private state. The object of this expedition seems to have been, to draw away a part of the American forces;

Sir Henry Clinton knowing but too well, that if they were left at liberty to push the siege of Yorktown, the blockaded army must inevitably surrender.

This expedition was signalized by the greatest atrocities. Fort Trumbull, on the west, and Fort Griswold, on the east side of the river Thames, below New-London, were taken, and the greater part of that town was burnt.

At Fort Trumbull, little or no resistance was made; but Fort Griswold was defended for a time, with great bravery and resolution. After the fort was carried, a British officer entering, inquired who commanded. Col. Ledyard answered, "I did, but you do now"—at the same time presenting his sword. The officer immediately plunged the sword into his bosom. A general massacre now took place, as well of those who surrendered as of those who resisted, which continued until nearly all the garrison were either killed or wounded. Sixty dwelling houses, and eighty-four stores in New-London were reduced to ashes.

LXXVIII. The fall of Cornwallis may be considered as substantially closing the war. A few posts of importance were still held by the British—New-York, Charleston, and Savannah—but all other parts of the country, which they had possessed, were recovered into the power of congress. A few skirmishes alone indicated the continuance of war.

A part of the French army, soon after the capture of Cornwallis, re-embarked, and Count de Grasse sailed for the West Indies. Count Rochambeau cantoned his army for the winter, 1782, in Virginia, and the main body of the Americans returned, by the way of the Chesapeake, to their former position on the Hudson.

LXXIX. From the 12th of December, 1781, to the 4th of March, 1782, motion after motion was made in the British Parliament for putting an end to the war in America. On this latter day, the commons resolved "that the house would consider as enemies to his majesty and to the country, all those who should advise, or attempt the further prosecution of offensive war, on the continent of North America.

LXXX. On the same day, the command of his ma-

jeaty's forces in America was taken from Sir Henry Clinton, and given to Sir Guy Carleton, who was instructed to promote the wishes of Great Britain, for an accommodation with the United States.

In accordance with these instructions, Sir Guy Carleton endeavoured to open a correspondence with congress, and with this view sent to Gen. Washington to solicit a passport for his secretary. But this was refused, since congress would enter into no negotiations but in concert with his most Christain Majesty.

LXXXI. The French court, on receiving intelligence of the surrender of Cornwallis, pressed upon congress the appointment of commissioners for negotiating peace with Great Britain. Accordingly, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and Henry Laurens, were appointed. These commissioners met Mr. Fitzherbert and Mr. Oswald, on the part of Great Britain, at Paris, and provisional articles of peace between the two countries were signed, November 30th, 1782. The definitive treaty was signed on the 30th of September, 1783.

Although the definitive treaty was not signed until September, there had been no act of hostility between the two armies, and a state of peace had actually existed from the commencement of the year 1783. A formal proclamation of the cessation of hostilities was made through the army on the 19th of April,—Savannah was evacuated in July, New-York in November, and Charleston in the following month.

LXXXII. The third of November was fixed upon by congress, for disbanding the army of the United States. On the day previous, Washington issued his farewell orders, and bid an affectionate adieu to the soldiers, who had fought and bled by his side.

After mentioning the trying times through which he had passed, and the unexampled patience which, under every circumstance of suffering, his army had evinced, he passed to the glorious prospects opening before them, and their country—and then bade them adieu in the following words: "Being now to conclude these his last publick orders, to take his ultimate

leave in a short time of the military character, and to bid a final adieu to the armies he has so long had the honour to command, he can only again offer in their behalf, his recommendations to their grateful country, and his prayer to the God of armies:

"May ample justice be done them here, and may the choicest favour, both here and hereafter, attend those, who, under the divine auspices, have secured innumerable blessings for others! With these wishes, and this benediction, the commander in chief is about to retire from service. The curtain of separation will soon be drawn, and the military scene to him will be closed for ever."

LXXXIII. Soon after taking leave of the army, Gen. Washington was called to the still more painful hour of separation from his officers, greatly endeared to him by a long series of common sufferings and dangers.

The officers having previously assembled in New-York for the purpose, Gen. Washington now joined them, and calling for a glass of wine, thus addressed them: "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take my leave of you. I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy, as your former ones have been glorious and honourable."

Having thus affectionately addressed them, he now took each by the hand and bade him farewell. Followed by them to the side of the Hudson, he entered a barge, and, while tears rolled down his cheeks, he turned towards the companions of his glory, and bade them a silent adieu.

LXXXIV. December 23, Washington appeared in the hall of congress, and resigned to them the commission which they had given him, as commander in chief of the armies of the United States.

After having spoken of the accomplishment of his wishes and exertions, in the independence of his country, and commended his officers and soldiers to Congress, he concluded as follows:

"I consider it an indispensable duty to close the last solemn act of my official life, by commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, and those who have the superintendence of them to his holy keeping."

"Having now finished the work assigned me, I retire from the great theatre of action; and bidding an affectionate farewell to this august body, under whose orders I have long acted.

I here offer my commission, and take my leave of all the employments of publick life."

LXXXV. Upon accepting his commission, congress, through their president, expressed in glowing language to Washington, their high sense of his wisdom and energy, in conducting the war to so happy a termination, and invoked the choicest blessings upon his future life.

President Mifflin concluded as follows: "We join you in commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, beseeching Him to dispose the hearts and minds of its citizens to improve the opportunity afforded them of becoming a happy and respectable nation. And for you, we address to Him our earnest prayers, that a life so beloved, may be fostered with all His care; that your days may be as happy as they have been illustrious; and that He will finally give you that reward which this world cannot give."

A profound silence now pervaded the assembly. The grandeur of the scene, the recollection of the past, the felicity of the present, and the hopes of the future, crowded fast upon all, while they united in invoking blessings upon the man, who, under God, had achieved so much, and who now, in the character of a mere citizen, was hastening to a long desired repose at his seat, at Mount Vernon, in Virginia.

Notes.

LXXXVI. Manners. At the commencement of the revolution, the colonists of America were a mass of husbandmen, merchants, mechanicks, and fishermen, who were occupied in the ordinary avocations of their respective callings, and were entitled to the appellation of a sober, honest, and industrious set of people. Being, however, under the control of a country, whose jealousies were early and strongly enlisted against them, and which, therefore, was eager to repress every attempt, on their part, to rise, they had comparatively little scope or encouragement, for exertion and enterprise.

But when the struggle for independence began, the case was altered. New fields for exertion were opened, and new and still stronger impulses actuated their bosoms. A great change was suddenly wrought in the American people, and a vast expansion of character took place. Those who were before only known in the humble sphere of peaceful occupation, soon shone forth in the cabinet or in the field, fully qualified to cope with the trained generals and statesmen of Europe.

But, although the revolution caused such an expansion of character in the American people, and called forth the most striking patriotism among all classes, it introduced, at the same time, greater looseness of manners and morals. An army always carries deep vices in its train, and communicates its corruption to society around it. Besides this, the failure of publick credit so far put it out of the power of individuals to perform private engagements, that the breach of them became common, and, at length, was scarcely disgraceful. That high sense of integrity, which had extensively existed before, was thus exchanged for more loose and slippery notions of honesty and honour.

"On the whole," says Dr. Ramsay, who wrote soon after the close of this period, "the literary, political, and military talents of the United States have been improved by the revolution, but their *moral character* is inferior to what it formerly was. So great is the change for the worse," continues he, "that the friends of publick order are loudly called upon to exert their utmost abilities, in extirpating the vicious principles and habits, which have taken deep root during the late convulsions."

LXXXVII. Religion. During the revolution, the colonies being all united in one cause—a congress being assembled from all parts of America—and more frequent intercourse between different parts of the country being promoted by the shifting of the armies—local prejudices and sectarian asperities were obliterated; religious controversy was suspended; and bigotry softened. That spirit of intolerance, which had marked some portions of the country, was nearly done away.

But, for these advantages, the revolution brought with it

great disadvantages to religion in general. The atheistical philosophy, which had been spread over France, and which would involve the whole subject of religion in the gloomy mists of skepticism—which acknowledges no distinction between right and wrong, and considers a future existence as a dream, that may or may not be realized—was thickly sown in the American army, by the French; and, uniting with the infidelity, which before had taken root in the country, produced a serious declension in the tone of religious feelings, among the American people.

In addition to this, religious institutions during the war, were much neglected; churches were demolished, or converted into barracks; public worship was often suspended; and the clergy suffered severely, from the reduction of their salaries, caused by the depreciation of the circulating medium.

LXXXVIII. Trade and Commerce. During the war of the revolution, the commerce of the United States was interrupted, not only with Great Britain, but, in a great measure, with the rest of the world: The greater part of the shipping, belonging to the country, was destroyed by the enemy, or perished by a natural process of decay.

Our coasts were so lined with British cruisers, as to render navigation too hazardous to be pursued to any considerable extent. Some privateers, however, were fitted out, which succeeded in capturing several valuable prizes, on board of which were arms, and other munitions of war. During the last three years of the war, an illicit trade to Spanish America was carried on, but it was extremely limited.

LXXXIX. Agriculture. Agriculture was greatly interrupted during this period, by the withdrawing of labourers to the camp—by the want of encouragement furnished by exportation, and by the distractions which disturbed all the occupations of society.

The army often suffered for the means of subsistence, and the officers were sometimes forced to compel the inhabitants to furnish the soldiers food, in sufficient quantities to prevent their suffering.

XC. Arts and Manufactures. The trade with England, during this period, being interrupted by the war, the people of the United States were compelled to

manufacture for themselves. Encouragement was given to all necessary manufactures, and the zeal, ingenuity, and industry of the people, furnished the country with articles of prime necessity, and, in a measure, supplied the place of a foreign market. Such was the progress in arts and manufactures, during the period, that, after the return of peace, when an uninterrupted intercourse with England was again opened, some articles, which before were imported altogether, were found so well, and so abundantly manufactured at home, that their importation was stopped.

XCI. Population. The increase of the people of the United States, during this period, was small. Few, if any, emigrants arrived in the country. Many of the inhabitants were slain in battle, and thousands of that class called *tories*, left the land, who never returned. Perhaps we may fairly estimate the inhabitants of the country, about the close of this period, 1784, at three millions two hundred and fifty thousand.

XCII. Education. The interests of education suffered in common with other kindred interests, during the war. In several colleges, the course of instruction was, for a season, suspended; the hall was exchanged by the students for the camp, and the gown for the sword and epaulette.

Towards the conclusion of the war, two colleges were founded—one in Maryland, in 1782, by the name of Washington college; the other in 1783, in Pennsylvania, which received the name of Dickinson college. The writer whom we have quoted above, estimates the whole number of colleges and academies in the United States, at the close of this period, at thirty-six.

Reflections.

XCIII. The American revolution is doubtless the most interesting event in the pages of modern history. Changes equally great, and convulsions equally violent, have often taken place; and the history of man tells us of many instances, in which oppression, urged beyond endurance, has called forth the spirit of successful and triumphant resistance. But, in the

event before us, we see feeble colonies, without an army—without a navy—without an established government—without a revenue—without munitions of war—without fortifications, boldly stepping forth to meet the veteran armies of a proud, powerful, and vindictive enemy. We see these colonies amidst want, poverty, and misfortune—supported by the pervading spirit of liberty, and guided by the good hand of Heaven—for nearly eight years sustaining the weight of a cruel conflict, upon their own soil. We see them at length victorious; their enemies sullenly retire from their shores, and these humble colonies stand forth enrolled on the page of history—a free, sovereign, and independent nation. Nor is this all. We see a wise government springing up from the blood that was spilt, and, down to our own time, shedding the choicest political blessings upon several millions of people!

What nation can dwell with more just satisfaction upon its annals, than ours? Almost all others trace their foundation to some ambitious and bloody conquerer, who sought only, by enslaving others, to aggrandize himself. Our independence was won by the people, who fought for the natural rights of man. Other nations have left their annals stained with the crimes of their people and princes; ours shines with the glowing traces of patriotism, constancy and courage, amidst every rank of life, and every grade of office.

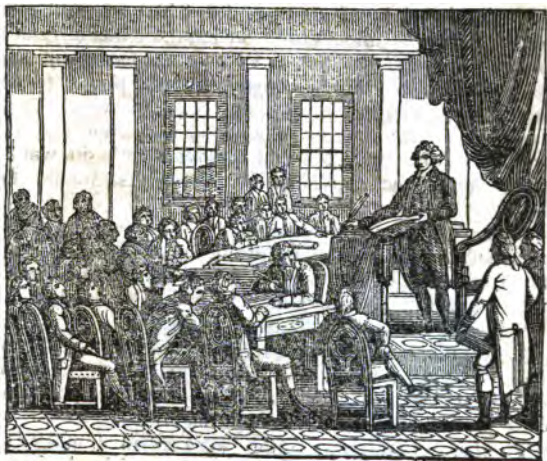
Whenever we advert to this portion of our history, and review it, as we well may with patriotick interest, let us not forget the gratitude we owe, as well to those who “fought, and bled, and died” for us, as that benignant Providence, who stayed the proud waves of British tyranny.

Let us also gather political wisdom from the American revolution. It has taught the world, emphatically, that oppression tends to weaken and destroy the power of the oppressor; that a people united in the cause of liberty, are invincible by those who would enslave them; and that Heaven will ever frown upon the cause of injustice, and ultimately grant success to those who oppose it.

UNITED STATES.

Period IX.

DISTINGUISHED FOR THE FORMATION AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.



Convention at Philadelphia, 1787.

Extending from the disbanding of the army, 1783, to the inauguration of George Washington, as president of the United States, under the Federal Constitution, 1789.

Section I. During the revolutionary war, the American people looked forward to a state of peace, independence and self-government, as almost necessarily ensuring

every possible blessing. A short time was sufficient, however, to demonstrate that something, not yet possessed, was necessary to realize the private and public prosperity that had been anticipated. After a short struggle so to administer the existing system of government, as to make it competent to the great objects for which it was instituted, it became apparent that some other system must be substituted, or a general wreck of all that had been gained would ensue.

II. At the close of the war, the debts* of the Union were computed to amount to somewhat more than forty millions of dollars. By the articles of confederation and union between the States, congress had the power to declare war, and borrow money, or issue bills of credit to carry it on; but it had not the ability to discharge debts, incurred by the war. All that congress could do, was to recommend to the individual States to raise money for that purpose.

Soon after the war, the attention of congress was drawn to this subject; the payment of the national debt being a matter of justice to creditors, as well as of vital importance to the preservation of the Union. It was proposed, therefore, by congress, to the States, that they should grant to that body the power of laying a duty of five per cent. on all foreign goods, which should be imported, and that the revenue arising thence should be applied to the diminution of the publick debt, until it was extinguished.

To this proposal, most of the States assented, and passed an act, granting the power. But Rhode-Island, apprehensive that such a grant would lessen the advantages of

* These debts were of two kinds, foreign and domestick. The foreign debt amounted to near eight millions of dollars, and was due to individuals in France—to the crown of France—to lenders in Holland and Spain. The domestick debt amounted to some more than thirty-four millions of dollars, and was due to persons who held loan office certificates—to the officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army, &c.

her trade, declined passing an act for that purpose. Subsequently, New-York joined in the opposition, and rendered all prospect of raising a revenue, in this way, hopeless.

The consequence was, that even the interest of the publick debt remained unpaid. Certificates of publick debt lost their credit, and many of the officers and soldiers of the late army, who were poor, were compelled to sell these certificates at excessive reductions.

III. While the friends of the national government were making unavailing efforts to fix upon a permanent revenue, which might enable it to preserve the national faith, other causes, besides the loss of confidence in the confederation, concurred to hasten a radical change in the political system of the United States.

Among these causes, the principal was the evil resulting from the restrictions of Great Britain, laid on the trade of the United States with the West Indies; the ports of those islands being shut against the vessels of the United States, and enormous duties imposed on our most valuable exports.

Had congress possessed the power, a remedy might have been found, in passing similar acts against Great Britain; but this power had not been delegated by the States to the congress. That thirteen independent sovereignties, always jealous of one another, would separately concur in any proper measures to compel Great Britain to relax, was not to be expected. The importance of an enlargement of the powers of congress was thus rendered still more obvious.

IV. During this enfeebled and disorganized state of the general government, attempts were made, in some of the states, to maintain their credit, and to satisfy their creditors. The attempt of Massachusetts to effect this, by means of a heavy tax, produced an open insurrection among the people. In some parts of the State, the people convened in tumultuous assemblies—obstructed the sitting of courts, and, finally, took arms in opposition to the laws of the

State. The prudent measures of Gov. Bowdoin and his council, seconded by an armed force, under Gen. Lincoln, in the winter of 1786, gradually subdued the spirit of opposition, and restored the authority of the laws.

This rising of the people of Massachusetts is usually styled *Shays' insurrection*, from one Daniel Shays, a captain in the revolutionary army, who headed the insurgents. In August 1786, fifteen hundred insurgents assembled at Northampton took possession of the court-house, and prevented the session of the court. Similar outrages occurred at Worcester, Concord, Taunton, and Springfield. In New-Hampshire, also, a body of men arose in September, and, surrounding the general assembly, sitting at Exeter, held them prisoners for several hours.

In this state of civil commotion, a body of troops, to the number of four thousand, was ordered out by Massachusetts to support the judicial courts, and suppress the insurrection. This force was put under the command of General Lincoln. Another body of troops was collected by Gen. Shepherd, near Springfield. After some skirmishing, the insurgents were dispersed; several were taken prisoners and condemned, but were ultimately pardoned.

V. The period seemed to have arrived, when it was to be decided whether the general government was to be supported or abandoned—whether the glorious objects of the revolutionary struggle should be realized or lost.

In January, 1786, the legislature of Virginia adopted a resolution to appoint commissioners, who were to meet such others, as might be appointed by the other States, to take into consideration the subject of trade, and to provide for a uniform system of commercial relations, &c. This resolution, ultimately, led to a proposition for a general convention to consider the state of the union.

But five States were represented in the convention, proposed by Virginia, which met at Annapolis. In consideration of the small number of States represented, the convention, without coming to any specific resolution on the particular subjects referred to them, adjourned to meet in Philadelphia, the succeeding May. Previously to adjournment, it recommended to the several States, to appoint delegates for that meeting, and to give them *power to revise the federal system*.

Agreeably to the above recommendation, all the States of the Union, excepting Rhode-Island, appointed commissioners, who, on the 19th of May, assembled at Philadelphia.

Of this body, Gen. Washington, one of the commissioners from Virginia, was unanimously elected president. The convention proceeded, with closed doors, to discuss the interesting subject submitted to their consideration.

VI. On the great principles which should form the basis of the constitution, not much difference of opinion prevailed. But, in reducing those principles to practical details, less harmony was to be expected. Such, indeed, was the difference of opinion, that, more than once, there was reason to fear, that the convention would rise, without effecting the object for which it was formed. Happily, however, it was at length agreed to sacrifice local interest on the altar of publick good, and on the 17th of September, 1787, the FEDERAL CONSTITUTION was presented to congress, who, shortly after, sent it to the several States for their consideration.

An abstract of this constitution, with its several subsequent amendments, follows : it is extracted from Mr. Webster's Elements of Useful Knowledge.

Of the Legislature. "The legislative power of the United States is vested in a congress, consisting of two houses or branches, a senate, and a house of representatives. The members of the house of representatives are chosen once in two years, by the persons who are qualified to vote for members of the most numerous branches of the legislature, in each State. To be entitled to a seat in this house, a person must have attained to the age of twenty-five years, been a citizen of the United States for seven years, and be an inhabitant of the state in which he is chosen.

Of the Senate. "The senate consists of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature for six years. The senate is divided into three classes, the seats of one of which are vacated every second year. If a vacancy happens during the recess of the legislature, the executive of the state makes a temporary appointment of a senator, until the next meeting of the legislature. A senator must have attained to the age of thirty years, been a citizen of the United States nine years, and be an inhabitant of the State for which he is chosen.

Of the powers of the two Houses. "The house of representatives choose their own speaker and other officers, and have the exclusive power of impeaching public officers, and originating bills for raising a revenue. The vice-president of the United States is president of the senate; but the other officers are chosen by the senate. The senate tries all impeachments each house determines the validity of the elections and qualification of its own members, forms its own rules, and keeps a journal of its proceedings. The members are privileged from arrest, while attending on the session, going to, or returning from the same, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

Of the powers of Congress. "The Congress of the United States have power to make and enforce all laws, which are necessary for the general welfare—as to lay and collect taxes, imposts, and excises; borrow money, regulate commerce, establish uniform rules of naturalization, coin money, establish post roads and post offices, promote the arts and sciences, institute tribunals inferior to the supreme court, define and punish piracy, declare war, and make reprisals, raise and support armies, provide a navy, regulate the militia, and to make all laws necessary to carry these powers into effect.

Of Restrictions. "No bill of attainder, or retrospective law, shall be passed; the writ of habeas corpus cannot be suspended, except in cases of rebellion or invasion; no direct tax can be laid, except according to a census of the inhabitants; no duty can be laid on exports, no money can be drawn from the treasury, unless appropriated by law; no title of nobility can be granted, nor can any publick officer, without the consent of congress, accept of any present or title from any foreign prince or state. The States are restrained from emitting bills of credit, from making any thing but gold or silver a tender for debts, and from passing any law impairing private contracts.

Of the Executive. "The executive power of the United States is vested in a president, who holds his office for four years. To qualify a man for president, he must have been a citizen at the adoption of the constitution, or must be a native of the United States; he must have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States. The president and vice-president are chosen by electors designated in such a manner as the legislature of each State shall direct. The number of electors in each State is equal to the whole number of senators and representatives.

Of the powers of the President. "The president of the United States is commander in chief of the army and navy, and of the

militia when in actual service. He grants reprieves and pardons; nominates, and, with the consent of the senate, appoints ambassadors, judges, and other officers; and, with the advice and consent of the senate, forms treaties, provided two thirds of the senate agree. He fills vacancies in offices which happen during the recess of the senate. He convenes the congress on extraordinary occasions, receives foreign ministers, gives information to congress of the state of publick affairs, and in general, takes care that the laws be faithfully executed.

Of the Judiciary. "The Judiciary of the United States consists of one supreme court, and such inferiour courts as the congress shall ordain. The judges are to hold their offices during good behaviour, and their salaries cannot be diminished during their continuance in office. The judicial power of these courts extend to all cases in law and equity, arising under the constitution, or laws of the United States, and under treaties; to cases of publick ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies between the States, and in which the United States are a party; between citizens of different States; between a State and a citizen of another State, and between citizens of the same State, claiming under grants of different States; and to causes between one of the States or an American citizen, and a foreign State or citizen.

Of Rights and Immunities. "In all criminal trials, except impeachment, the trial by jury is guaranteed to the accused. Treason is restricted to the simple acts of levying war against the United States, and adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort; and no person can be convicted but by two witnesses to the same act, or by confession in open court. A conviction of treason is not followed by a corruption of blood, to disinherit the heirs of the criminal, nor by a forfeiture of estate, except during the life of the offender. The citizens of each State are entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States. Congress may admit new States into the union, and the national compact guarantees to each State a republican form of government, together with protection from foreign invasion and domestick violence."

VII. By a resolution of the convention, it was recommended that assemblies should be called, in the different States, to discuss the merits of the constitution, and either accept or reject it; and, that as soon as nine States should have ratified it, it should be carried into operation by congress.

To decide the interesting question, respecting the adoption or rejection of the new constitution, the best talents of the several States were assembled in their respective conventions. The fate of the constitution could, for a time, be scarcely conjectured, so equally were the parties balanced. But, at length, the conventions of eleven States assented to, and ratified the constitution.

North Carolina and Rhode-Island refused their assent at this time, but afterwards acceded to it: the former, November, 1789; the latter, May, 1790.

VIII. From the moment it was settled that this new arrangement in their political system was to take place, the attention of all classes of people, as well anti-federalists as federalists, (for by these names the parties for and against the new constitution were called,) was directed to General Washington, as the first president of the United States. Accordingly, on the opening of the votes for President, at New-York, March 3d, 1789, by delegates from eleven States, it was found that he was unanimously elected to that office, and that John Adams was elected vice-president.

Notes.

IX. ~~planners~~. The war of the revolution, as was observed in our notes on the last period, seriously affected the morals and manners of the people of the United States. The peace of 1783, however, tended, in a measure, to restore things to their former state. Those sober habits, for which the country was previously distinguished, began to return; business assumed a more regular and equitable character: the tumultuous passions, roused by the war, subsided; and men of wisdom and worth began to acquire their proper influence.

The change wrought in the manners of the people, during the revolution, began in this period to appear. National peculiarities wore away still more; local prejudices were further corrected, and a greater assimilation of the yet discordant ma-

terials, of which the population of the United States was composed, took place.

X. Religion. *Methodism* was introduced into the United States, during this period, under the direction of John Wesley, in England. This denomination increased rapidly in the Middle States, and, in 1789, they amounted to about fifty thousand.

During this period, also, the *infidelity*, which we have noticed, seems to have lost ground. Publick worship was more punctually attended, than during the war, and the cause of religion began again to flourish.

XI. Trade and Commerce. The commerce of the United States, during the war of the revolution, as already stated, was nearly destroyed; but, on the return of peace, it revived. An excessive importation of goods immediately took place from England. In 1784, the imports, from England alone, amounted to eighteen millions of dollars, and in 1785, to twelve millions—making, in those two years, thirty millions of dollars, while the exports of the United States to England were only between eight and nine millions.

On the average of six years posterior to the war, the extent of this period, the imports from Great Britain into the United States, were two millions, one hundred and nineteen thousand, eight hundred and thirty-seven pounds sterling; the exports nine hundred and eight thousand, six hundred, and thirty-six pounds sterling, leaving an annual balance of five millions, three hundred and twenty-nine thousand, two hundred and eighty-four dollars in favour of Great Britain.

The commercial intercourse of the United States with other countries was less extensive than with England, yet it was not inconsiderable. From France and her dependencies, the United States imported, in 1787, to the amount of about two millions, five hundred thousand dollars, and exported to the same, to the value of five millions of dollars.

The trade of the United States with China commenced soon after the close of the revolutionary war. The first American vessel that went on a trading voyage to China, sailed from New-York, on the 22d of February, 1784, and returned on the 11th of May, 1785. In 1789, there were fifteen American vessels at Canton, being a greater number than from any other nation, except Great Britain.

During this period, also, the Americans commenced the

and hazardous trading voyages to the North West Coast of America. The first of the kind, undertaken from the United States, was from Boston, in 1788, in a ship commanded by Capt. Kendrick. The trade afforded great profits at first, and, since 1788, has been carried on from the United States to a considerable extent.

The whale fishery, which, during the war was suspended, revived on the return of peace. From 1787 to 1789, both inclusive, ninety-one vessels were employed from the United States, with one thousand six hundred and eleven seamen. Nearly eight thousand barrels of spermaceti oil were annually taken, and about thirteen thousand barrels of whale oil.

Small quantities of cotton were first exported from the United States about the year 1784. It was raised in Georgia.

XII. Agriculture. Agriculture revived at the close of the war, and, in a few years, the exports of produce raised in the United States were again considerable. Attention began to be paid to the culture of cotton, in the southern States, about the year 1783, and it soon became a staple of that part of the country. About the same time, agricultural societies began to be formed in the country.

XIII. Arts and Manufactures. The excessive importation of merchandize from Great Britain, during this period—much of which was sold at low prices—checked the progress of manufactures in the United States, which had been extensively begun, during the war of the revolution. Iron works, however, for the construction of axes, ironing of carriages, and the making of machinery, &c. &c. were still kept up in all parts of the United States. Some coarse woollen and linen cloths, cabinet furniture, and the more bulky and simple utensils for domestick use, &c. &c. were manufactured in New-England.

XIV. Population. The population of the United States, at the close of this period, was nearly four millions.

XV. Education. Several colleges were established, during this period—one in Maryland, at Annapolis, called St. John's college; a second, in 1785, at Abington, in the same state, by the Methodists, called Cokesbury college; a third, in the city of New-York, and a fourth, in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, in 1787—The former, by the same

of Columbia college, and the latter, by that of Franklin college. The North Carolina university was incorporated in 1789.

The subject of education, during this period, seems to have attracted publick attention throughout the United States, and permanent institutions, for the instruction of youth, were either planned, or established, in every section of the country.

Reflections.

XVI. The history of the world furnishes no parallel to the history of the United States during this short period. At the commencement of it, they had but just emerged from a long and distressing war, which had nearly exhausted the country, and imposed an accumulated debt upon the nation. They were united by a confederation inadequate to the purposes of government; they had just disbanded an army which was unpaid, and dissatisfied, and more than all, they were untried in the art of self-government.

In circumstances like these, it would not have been strange had the people fallen into dissensions and anarchy, or had some bold, ambitious spirit arisen, and fastened the yoke of monarchy upon them. But a happier destiny awaited them. In this hour of peril, the same Providence, that had guided them thus far, still watched over them, and, as victory was granted them in the hour of battle, so wisdom was now vouchsafed in a day of peace. Those master spirits of the revolution, some of whom had recently retired from the camp to the enjoyment of civil life, were now called to devise the means of securing the independence which they had won. Perhaps they exhibited to the world a no less striking spectacle as the framers of our excellent constitution, than as victors over the arms of Britain.

UNITED STATES.

Period VII.

DISTINGUISHED BY WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.



George Washington.

Extending from the inauguration of President Washington, 1789, to the inauguration of John Adams, as president of the United States, 1797.

Section I. On the 30th of April, 1789, Gen. Washington, in the presence of the first congress, under the Federal Constitution, and before an immense concourse of spectators, was inducted into the office of President of the United States, by taking the oath prescribed by the constitution.

Intelligence of his election was communicated to Washington, while on his *farm* in Virginia. On his way to New-York, to enter upon the duties of his station, he received, in almost every place through which he passed, the highest expressions of affection and respect, that a grateful people could pay.

Soon after his arrival in New-York, a day was assigned for his taking the oath of office. On the morning of that day, publick prayers were offered in all the churches. At noon, a procession was formed, which escorted Washington, dressed on the occasion wholly in American manufactures, to Federal-Hall. Here the oath prescribed by the constitution was administered to him by the chancellor of the State of New-York.

The ceremonies of the inauguration being concluded, Washington entered the senate chamber, and delivered his first speech. In this, after expressing the reluctance with which he obeyed the call of his countrymen, from repose and retirement, so ardently coveted, after a series of military toils, and the diffidence with which he entered upon an office so full of responsibility, he proceeded thus :

"It will be peculiarly improper to omit, in this *first* official act, my fervent supplications to that Almighty Being who rules over the universe—who presides in the councils of nations," &c. Thus did Washington, in the commencement of his administration, publicly appear on the side of religion; nor was he ashamed to acknowledge, before the nation, his sense of dependence upon God for wisdom and direction.

II. Business of importance, in relation to the organisation and support of the new government, now pressed upon the attention of the president, and of congress. A revenue was to be provided; the departments of government were to be arranged and filled; a judiciary was to be established, and its officers appointed; and provision was to be made for the support of publick credit.

After a long discussion, congress agreed to raise a revenue for the support of government, by impost and tonnage duties. Having next fixed upon, and arranged the several departments of the government, the president, whose duty it was, proceeded to nominate the proper persons to fill them. In performing this service, he appears to have been actuated, simply, by a regard to the best good of the country.

Mr. Jefferson was selected for the department of State; Col. Hamilton was appointed secretary of the treasury; Gen.

Knox secretary of war, and Edmund Randolph attorney general. At the head of the judiciary was placed John Jay, and with him were appointed John Rutledge, James Wilson, William Cushing, Robert Harrison, and John Blair.

During this session of congress, several new articles were proposed to be added to the constitution, by way of amendment, and to be submitted to the several States for their approbation.

After a long and animated discussion of the subject, twelve new articles were agreed upon, which, when submitted to the respective State legislatures, were approved by three-fourths of them, and were thus added to the constitution.

Congress adjourned on the 29th of September. It was among their concluding acts, to direct the secretary of the treasury to prepare a plan for adequately providing for the support of the publick credit, and to report the same at their next meeting.

III. During the recess of congress, Washington made a tour into New-England. Passing through Connecticut and Massachusetts, and into New-Hampshire, as far as Portsmouth, he returned by a different route to New-York.

With this excursion the president had much reason to be gratified. To observe the progress of society, the improvements in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, and the temper, circumstances, and dispositions of the people, while it could not fail to please an intelligent and benevolent mind, was, in all respects, worthy of the chief magistrate of the nation. He was every where received with expressions of the purest affection, and could not fail to rejoice in the virtue, religion, happiness, and prosperity of the people, at the head of whose government he was placed.

IV. The second session of the first congress commenced, January 8th, 1790. In obedience to the resolution of the former congress, the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, made his report on the subject of maintaining the publick credit.

In this report, he strongly recommended to congress, as the only mode, in his opinion, in which the public credit would be supported.

1. That provision be made for the full discharge of the foreign debt, according to the precise terms of the contract.

2. That provision be made for the payment of the domestick debt, in a similar manner.

3. That the debts of the several States, created for the purpose of carrying on the war, be assumed by the general government.

The proposal for making adequate provision for the foreign debt was met cordially and unanimously; but, respecting the full discharge of the domestick debt, and the assumption of the State debts, much division prevailed in congress. After a spirited and protracted debate on these subjects, the recommendation of the secretary prevailed, and bills conformable thereto passed, by a small majority.

The division of sentiment among the members of congress, in relation to the full, or only a partial payment of the domestick debt, arose from this. A considerable proportion of the original holders of publick securities had found it necessary to sell them, at a reduced price—even as low as two or three shillings on the pound. These securities had been purchased by speculators, with the expectation of ultimately receiving the full amount. Under these circumstances, it was contended by some, that congress would perform their duty, should they pay to all holders of publick securities only the reduced market price. Others advocated a discrimination between the present holders of the securities, and those to whom the debt was originally due, &c. &c.

In his report, Mr. Hamilton ably examined these several points, and strongly maintained the justice of paying to all holders of securities, without discrimination, the full value of what appeared on the face of their certificates. This, he contended, justice demanded, and for this the publick faith was pledged.

By the opposers of the bill, which related to the assumption of the State debts, the constitutional authority of the federal government for this purpose was questioned; and the policy and justice of the measure controverted.

To cancel the several debts which congress thus undertook to discharge, the proceeds of publick lands, lying in the western territory, were directed to be applied, together

with the surplus revenue, and a loan of two millions of dollars, which the president was authorized to borrow, at an interest of five per cent.

This measure laid the foundation of publick credit upon such a basis, that government paper soon rose from two shillings and six-pence to twenty shillings on the pound, and, indeed, for a short time, was above par. Individuals, who had purchased certificates of public debt low, realized immense fortunes. A general spring was given to the affairs of the nation. A spirit of enterprise, of agriculture, and of commerce, universally prevailed, and the foundation was thus laid for that unrivalled prosperity which the United States, in subsequent years, enjoyed.

V. During this session of congress, a bill was passed, fixing the seat of government for ten years at Philadelphia, and, from and after that time, permanently at Washington, on the Potomac.

VI. On the 4th of March, 1791, VERMONT, by consent of congress, became one of the United States.

The tract of country, which is now known by the name of Vermont, was settled at a much later period than any other of the eastern states. The governments of New-York and Massachusetts made large grants of territory in the direction of Vermont; but it was not until 1724, that any actual possession was taken of land, within the present boundaries of the State. In that year Fort Durance was built, by the officers of Massachusetts, on Connecticut river. On the other side of the state, the French advanced up lake Champlain; and, in 1731, built Crown Point; and began a settlement on the eastern shore of the lake.

Vermont being supposed to fall within the limits of New-Hampshire, that government made large grants of land to settlers, even west of Connecticut river. New-York, however, conceived herself to have a better right to the territory, in consequence of the grant of Charles II. to his brother the duke of York. These states being thus at issue, the case was submitted to the English crown, which decided in favour of New-York, and confirmed its jurisdiction, as far as Connecticut river. In this decision New Hampshire acquiesced; but New-York persisting in its claims to land east of the river, actions of ejectment were instituted in the courts at Albany, which resulted in favour of the New-York title. The settlers, however deter-

mined to resist the officers of justice, and under Ethan Allen, associated together to oppose the New-York militia, which were called out to enforce the laws.

On the commencement of the revolution, the people of Vermont were placed in an embarrassing situation. They had not even a form of government. The jurisdiction of New-York being disclaimed, and allegiance to the British crown refused, every thing was effected by voluntary agreement. In January, 1777, a convention met, and proclaimed that the district before known by the name of the New-Hampshire grants, was of right a free and independent jurisdiction, and should be henceforth called *New Connecticut, alias Vermont*.

The convention proceeded to make known their proceedings to congress, and petitioned to be admitted into the confederacy. To this New-York objected, and for a time prevailed. Other difficulties arose with New Hampshire and Massachusetts, each of which laid claim to land within the present boundaries of the state. At the peace of 1783, Vermont found herself a sovereign and independent state *de facto*, united with no confederation, and therefore unembarrassed by the debts that weighed down the other states.

New-York still claimed jurisdiction over the state, but was unable to enforce it, and the state government was administered as regularly as in any of the other states. After the formation of the federal constitution, Vermont again requested admission into the Union. The opposition of New-York was still strong, but in 1789 was finally withdrawn, upon the consent of Vermont to pay her the sum of thirty thousand dollars. Thus terminated a controversy which had been carried on with animosity, and with injury to both parties, for twenty-six years. A convention was immediately called, by which it was resolved to join the federal union. Upon application to congress, their consent was readily given, and on the 4th of March, 1791, Vermont was added to the United States.

VII. At the time that congress assumed the State debts, during their second session, the secretary of the treasury had recommended a tax on domestic spirits, to enable them to pay the interest. The discussion of the bill having been postponed to the third session, was early in that session taken up. The tax, contemplated by the bill, was opposed with great vehemence, by a majority of southern and western members, on the ground that it was unnecessary and unequal, and would be particularly burdensome upon those parts of the Union, which could not,

without very great expense, procure foreign ardent spirits. Instead of this tax, these members proposed an increased duty on imported articles generally, a particular duty on molasses, a direct tax, or a tax on salaries, &c. &c. After giving rise to an angry and protracted debate, the bill passed, by a majority of thirty-five to twenty-one.

VIII. The secretary next appeared with a recommendation for a national bank. A bill, conforming to his plan, being sent down from the senate, was permitted to progress, unmolested, in the house of representatives, to the third reading. On the final reading, an unexpected opposition appeared against it, on the ground that banking systems were useless; that the proposed bill was defective, but, especially, that congress was not vested by the constitution, with the competent power to establish a national bank.

These several objections were met by the supporters of the bill with much strength of argument. After a debate of great length, supported with the ardour excited by the importance of the subject, the bill was carried in the affirmative, by a majority of nineteen voices.

A bill which had been agitated with so much warmth, in the house of representatives, the executive was now called upon to examine with reference to its sanction or rejection. The president required the opinions of the cabinet in writing. The secretary of state, Mr. Jefferson, and the attorney general, Mr. Randolph, considered the bill as decidedly unconstitutional. The secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, with equal decision, maintained the opposite opinion. A deliberate investigation of the subject satisfied the president, both of the constitutionality and utility of the bill, upon which he gave it his signature.

The bill which had now passed, with those relating to the finances of the country, the assumption of the state debts, the funding of the national debt, &c. contributed greatly to the complete organization of those distinct and visible parties, which, in their long and ardent conflict for power, have since shaken the United States to their centre.

IX. While matters of high importance were occupying the attention, and party strife and conflicting interests were filling the counsels of congress with agitation, an

Indian war opened on the north-western frontier of the States. Pacifick arrangements had been attempted by the president with the hostile tribes, without effect. On the failure of these, an offensive expedition was planned against the tribes, northwest of the Ohio.

The command of the troops, consisting of three hundred regulars, and about one thousand two hundred Pennsylvania and Kentucky militia, was given to Gen. Harmar, a veteran officer of the revolution. His instructions required him, if possible, to bring the Indians to an engagement; but, in any event, to destroy their settlements, on the waters of the Scioto, a river falling into the Ohio, and the Wabash, in the Indiana territory. In this expedition Harmar succeeded in destroying some villages, and a quantity of grain, belonging to the Indians; but in an engagement with them, near Chilicothe, he was routed with considerable loss.

Upon the failure of Gen. Harmar, Major-General Arthur St. Clair was appointed to succeed him. Under the authority of an act of congress, the president caused a body of levies to be raised for six months, for the Indian service.

X. Having arranged the northwestern expedition, directing St. Clair to destroy the Indian villages, on the Miami, and to drive the savages from the Ohio, the president commenced a tour through the southern States, similar to that which he had made through the northern and central parts of the union in 1789.

The same expressions of respect and affection awaited him, in every stage of his tour, which had been so zealously accorded to him in the north. Here, also, he enjoyed the high satisfaction of witnessing the most happy effects, resulting from the administration of that government over which he presided.

XI. On the 24th of October, 1791, the second congress commenced its first session. Among the subjects that early engaged their attention, was a bill "for apportioning representatives among the people of the several States, according to the first census." After much discussion, concerning the ratio that should be adopted, be-

tween representation and population, congress finally fixed it at one representative to each State, for every thirty-three thousand inhabitants.

The first bill fixed the ratio at one representative for every thirty thousand inhabitants; but to this bill the senate would not agree. A second bill was introduced, providing one representative for every thirty thousand, and dividing eight representatives among those States which had the greatest fractions. This bill the president returned to the house, whence it originated, as unconstitutional, as by it, eight States would send more representatives than their population allowed.

XII. In December, intelligence was received by the president, that the army under Gen. St. Clair, in battle with the Indians, near the Miami, in Ohio, had been totally defeated on the 4th of the preceding month.

The army of St. Clair amounted to near one thousand five hundred men. The Indian force consisted of nearly the same number. Of the loss of the Indians, no estimate could be formed; but the loss of the Americans was unusually severe; thirty-eight commissioned officers were killed in the field, and five hundred and ninety-three non-commissioned officers and privates were slain and missing. Between two and three hundred officers and privates were wounded, many of whom afterwards died. This result of the expedition was as unexpected, as unfortunate; but no want either of ability, zeal, or intrepidity, was ascribed, by a committee of congress, appointed to examine the causes of its failure, to the commander of the expedition.

XIII. Upon the news of St. Clair's defeat, a bill was introduced into congress for raising three additional regiments of infantry, and a squadron of cavalry, to serve for three years, if not sooner discharged. This bill, although finally carried, met with an opposition more warm and pointed from the opposers of the administration, than any which had before been agitated in the house.

By those who opposed the bill, it was urged that the war with the Indians was unjust; that the militia would answer as well, and even better than regular troops, and would be less expensive to support; that adequate funds could not be provided; and more than all, that this addition of one regiment to the army after another gave fearful intimation of monarchical designs, on the part of those who administered the government. On the other hand, the advocates of the bill contended, that

the war was a war of self-defence ; that between the years 1783 and 1790, not less than one thousand five hundred inhabitants of Kentucky, or emigrants to that country, and probably double that number, had been massacred by the Indians ; and that repeated efforts had been made by the government to obtain a peace, notwithstanding which, the butcheries of the savages still continued in their most appalling forms.

XIV. On the 8th of May, 1792, congress adjourned to the first Monday in November. The asperity which, on more than one occasion, had discovered itself in the course of debate, was a certain index of the growing exasperation of parties. With their adjournment, the conflicting feelings of members in a measure subsided ; the opposition, however, to the administration, had become fixed. It was carried into retirement--was infused by members into their constituents, and a party was thus formed throughout the nation, hostile to the plans of government adopted by Washington, and his friends in the cabinet.

XV. On the first of June, 1792, KENTUCKY, by act of congress, was admitted into the Union as a State.

The country, now called Kentucky, was well known to the Indian traders, many years before its settlement. By whom it was first explored, is a matter of uncertainty, and has given rise to controversy. In 1752, a map was published by Lewis Evans, of the country on the Ohio and Kentucky rivers ; and it seems that one James Macbride, with others, visited this region in 1754. No further attempt was made to explore the country until 1767, when John Finley, of North-Carolina, travelled over the ground on the Kentucky river, called by the Indians, " the dark and bloody ground."

On returning to Carolina, Finley communicated his discoveries to Col. Daniel Boone, who in 1769, with some others, undertook to explore the country. After a long and fatiguing march, they discovered the beautiful valley of Kentucky. Col. Boone continued an inhabitant of this wilderness until 1771, when he returned to his family for the purpose of removing them, and forming a settlement in the new country. In 1773, having made the necessary preparations, he set out again with five families and forty men, from Powell's Valley, and after various impediments, reached the Kentucky river in March, 1775, where he commenced a settlement.

In the years 1778, 1779, and 1780, a considerable number

of persons emigrated to Kentucky; yet, in this latter year, after an unusually severe winter, the inhabitants were so distressed that they came to the determination of abandoning the country for ever. They were fortunately diverted from this step by the arrival of emigrants. During the revolutionary war, they suffered severely from the Indians, incited by the British government. In 1778, Gen. Clarke overcame the Indians, and laid waste their villages.

From this time the inhabitants began to feel more secure, and the settlements were extended. In 1779, the legislature of Virginia, within whose limits this region lay, erected it into a county. In 1782, a supreme court, with an attorney-general, was established within the district. In the years 1783, 1784, and 1785, the district was laid out into counties, and a great part of the country surveyed and patented. In 1785, an attempt was made to form an independent State; but a majority of the inhabitants being opposed to the measure, it was delayed until December, 1790, when it became a separate state.

In 1792, as stated above, it was admitted into the Union.—The growth of Kentucky has been rapid, and she has obtained a respectable rank and influence among her sister States.

XVI. During the recess of congress, preparations were hastened by the president, for a vigorous prosecution of the war with the Indians; but such small inducements were presented to engage in the service, that a sufficient number of recruits could not be raised to authorize an expedition against them the present year. As the clamour against the war, by the opposers of the administration, was still loud, the president deemed it advisable, while preparations for hostilities were advancing, to make another effort at negotiation with the unfriendly Indians. The charge of this business was committed to Col. Harden and Maj. Freeman, two brave officers, and valuable men, who were murdered by the savages.

XVII. On the opening of the next congress, in November, a motion was made to reduce the military establishment, but it did not prevail. The debate on this subject was peculiarly earnest, and the danger of standing armies was powerfully urged. This motion, designed as a reflection upon the executive, was followed by several resolutions, introduced by Mr. Giles, tending to criminate the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Hamilton, of

misconduct, in relation to certain loans, negotiated under his direction.

In three distinct reports, sent to the house, the secretary offered every required explanation, and ably defended himself against the attacks of the opposition. Mr. Giles, and some others, however, were not satisfied; other resolutions were, therefore, offered, which, although rejected, were designed to fix upon the secretary the reputation of an ambitious man, aiming at the acquisition of dangerous power.

During these discussions, vehement attacks were made upon the secretary, in the publick prints. Hints also were suggested against the president himself; and although he was not openly accused of being the head of the federal party, of favouring their cause, or designing to subvert the liberties of his country, yet it was apparent that such suspicions were entertained of him.

On the 3d of March, 1793, a constitutional period was put to the existence of this congress. The members separated with obvious symptoms of irritation; and it was not to be doubted that their efforts would be exerted to communicate to their constituents the feelings which agitated their bosoms.

XVIII. The time had now arrived, 1793, when the electors of the States were again called upon to choose a chief magistrate of the Union. Washington had determined to withhold himself from being again elected to the presidency, and to retire from the cares of political life. Various considerations, however, prevented the declaration of his wishes, and he was again unanimously elected to the chair of State. Mr. Adams was re-elected vice-president.

XIX. Through the unceasing endeavours of the president to terminate the Indian war, a treaty had been negotiated with the Indians on the Wabash; and through the intervention of the Six Nations, those of the Miamis had consented to a conference during the ensuing spring. Offensive operations were, therefore, suspended, although the recruiting service was industriously urged, and assidu-

attention was paid to the discipline and preparation of the troops.

XX. The Indian war, though of real importance, was coming an object of secondary consideration. The revolution in France was now progressing, and began so to affect our relation with that country, as to require an exertion of all the wisdom and firmness of the government. Early in April, also, information was received of the declaration of war by France, against England and Holland.

This event excited the deepest interest in the United States. A large majority of the people, grateful for the aid that France had given us in our revolution, and devoted to the cause of liberty, were united in fervent wishes for the success of the French republic.* At the same time, the prejudices against Great Britain, which had taken deep root during the revolution, now sprung forth afresh, and the voice of many was heard, urging the propriety of the United States making a common cause with France against Great Britain.

A pressing occurrence had called Washington to

The revolution in France commenced about the year 1789. It is to have been hastened, or brought on, by the new ideas of liberty, which had been imbibed by the French army in the United States, and thence disseminated among the people of France, long time oppressed and degraded by a despotick government. Unfortunately, the revolution fell into the hands of selfish and unprincipled men, who in 1793, executed their king, Louis XVI. and after, his family, and murdered or imprisoned those who were suspected of hostility to their views, and involved France in a scene of filth and bloodshed, which cannot be contemplated without horror. In the first stages of this revolution, the friends of liberty throughout the world were full of hopes for a melioration of the wretched condition of France; but these hopes were soon blasted by sanguinary steps adopted by the revolutionists. Had they been governed by reason and religion, instead of unbridled passion; actuated by a philanthropick regard to the good of the people, instead of a selfish thirst of power, France to this day might have enjoyed the blessings of a free government.

Mount Vernon, when intelligence arrived of the rupture between France and England. Hastening his return to Philadelphia, he summoned the attention of his cabinet to several questions respecting the course of conduct proper for the United States to observe in relation to the belligerents.

Although sensible of the prejudices existing in the country against Great Britain, and of the friendly disposition which prevailed towards France, it was the unanimous opinion of the cabinet, that a strict neutrality should be observed by the United States towards the contending powers. The council was also unanimous that a minister from the French Republick should be received, should one be sent.

In accordance with the advice of his cabinet, the president issued his proclamation of neutrality, on the 22d of April, 1793. This proclamation, being without legislative sanction, soon became the subject of loud invective. The opposition party, through the press, pronounced it a "royal edict," an assumption of power on the part of the president, and a proof of his monarchical disposition. They denounced the conduct of the executive as dishonourable, and an act of neutrality as high ingratitude towards France, the firm and magnanimous ally of the United States, which had assisted in achieving the liberties of the country.

XXI. In this state of things, the Republick of France recalled the minister of the crown, and appointed Mr. Genet to succeed him. His mission had for its object the enlisting of America in the cause of France, against Great Britain. Flattered by the manner in which he was received by the people, as well as by their professions of attachment to his country, Mr. Genet early anticipated the accomplishment of his object.

Presuming too much upon this attachment, he was led into a series of acts infringing the neutrality proclaimed by the president. He also attempted to rouse the people against the government, because it did not --

coad all his views. At length, on the advice of his cabinet, the president solicited of the French Republick the recall of Mr. Genet, and the appointment of some one to succeed him. Monsieur Fauchet was appointed, and was instructed to assure the American government, that France totally disapproved of the conduct of his predecessor.

Mr. Genet, on his arrival in the country, landed at Charleston, S. C. He was received by the governour of that State, and by the citizens, with a flow of enthusiastick feeling, equalled only by that which had been evinced towards his nation at the conquest of Yorktown.

Soon after landing at Charleston, he began to authorize the fitting and arming of vessels, in that port, enlisting men, and giving commissions to cruize and commit hostilities against nations with which the United States were at peace. Vessels captured by these cruisers were brought into port, and the consuls of France, under the authority of Genet, not yet recognized as as a minister by the American government, assumed the power of holding courts of admiralty on them, of trying and condemning them, and of authorizing their sale. Upon a complaint of the British minister, Mr. Hammond, the American cabinet unanimously condemned those proceedings, and agreed that the efficacy of the laws should be tried against those citizens who had been concerned in them. Prosecutions were accordingly ordered and actually commenced.

The decisions and conduct of the cabinet gave great umbrage to Genet, who had now been accredited as the *minister of France*. In his communications to the secretary of state, his dissatisfaction was expressed in strong terms, and the executive charged with holding opinions, and adopting a course diametrically opposed to the views and wishes of the American people. In language highly offensive and reprehensible, he demanded that those persons under arrest, by order of the government of the United States, should be released, "on the ground that they were acting under the authority of France, and defending the glorious cause of liberty in common with her children." And at length he incautiously avowed the purpose, should his demands not be complied with, of appealing from the president to the people.

The language and conduct of Genet made a deep impression on the officers of the administration; but happily, they preserved, in all their communications with that gentleman, a becoming dignity, and continued to express a high respect and affection for his nation, and an earnest desire to promote its interests.

On the meeting of congress, December, 1793, the proclamation of neutrality was approved by them, as well as the conduct of the government towards Mr. Genet.

Finding on most questions arising between the French minister and the government of the United States, a wide and an increasing difference of views, and perceiving no beneficial effects resulting from his continuance in that character, the cabinet unanimously advised his recall.

XXII. 1794. On the last day of December, 1793, Mr. Jefferson, the secretary of state, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Edmund Randolph, the then attorney-general, this latter office was filled by William Bradford, a gentleman of considerable eminence in Pennsylvania.

XXIII. During the session of congress this year, a resolution passed to provide a naval force adequate to the protection of the commerce of the United States, against the Algerine corsairs. The force proposed was to consist of six frigates, four of forty-four, and two of thirty-six guns.

This measure was founded upon the communications of the president, from which it appeared that the prospect of being able to negotiate a treaty of peace with the dey of Algiers was doubtful; that eleven American merchant vessels, and upwards of one hundred citizens had been captured by them; and that further preparations were making for a renewed attack upon unprotected vessels belonging to the United States.

XXIV. During this session of congress, a law passed, prohibiting the carrying on of the slave trade from the American ports.

England had been actively engaged in the slave trade nearly fifty years, when the first settlement was effected in Virginia. Slavery was early introduced into the American colonies. The first slaves, about twenty in number, were brought to Virginia, in 1619, by a Dutch ship. The importation of them gradually increased, and although principally bought by the southern planters, slaves were soon found in great numbers, in all the colonies. In 1784, they amounted to six hundred thousand. In 1790, to six hundred and ninety-seven thousand six hundred and ninety-six.

A disgust towards this inhuman traffick appeared very early in the colonies: but it was countenanced and patronized by the English government, and thus introduced into, and fastened

upon the country, without the power, on the part of the colonies, to arrest it.

In Massachusetts, in 1645, a law was made, "prohibiting the buying and selling of slaves, except those taken in lawful war, or reduced to servitude by their crimes." In 1703, the same colony imposed a heavy duty on every negro imported, and in a subsequent law on the subject, they called the practice, "*the unnatural and unaccountable custom of enslaving mankind.*" In Virginia, as early as 1699, attempts were made to repress the importation of slaves, by heavy duties. These, and other acts, show that the North American provinces would, if left to themselves, have put an end to the importation of slaves before the era of their independence.

In 1778, Virginia abolished the traffick by law; Connecticut, Rhode-Island, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts, prohibited it before the year 1789. The continental congress passed a resolution against the purchase of slaves, imported from Africa, and exhorted the colonies to abandon the trade altogether. The third congress of the United States, as stated above, prohibited the trade, by law. Thus we see, in the United States, a very early and settled aversion to the slave trade manifesting itself, and before European nations had consented to relinquish it, several of the States had utterly prohibited it.

XXV. At this session also, several measures were adopted in anticipation of a war with Great Britain, growing out of her commercial restriction, which bore heavy, and operated most unjustly upon the United States. Bills were passed for laying an embargo for thirty days—for erecting fortifications—for organizing the militia, and in creasing the standing army. As an adjustment of differences, however, seemed desirable, Mr. Jay was appointed envoy extraordinary to the court of St. James, and succeeded in negotiating a treaty with Great Britain the following year.

Among the offensive acts of the government of Great Britain, was an order of June, 1793, prohibiting the exportation of corn to France, and authorizing the capture of neutral vessels carrying it thither. Under this order, many American vessels were captured and carried into England. In November following, additional instructions were given by the British cabinet, to ships of war and privateers, to bring into port, for trial, all ships laden with goods from France, or her colonies, and such as were carrying provisions, or other supplies, to either. To these causes of complaint, Great Britain had added ano-

ther, viz. neglecting to deliver up the western posts according to treaty.

While measures were taking, in anticipation of war, the president received advices from England, that the order of November had been considerably modified; that most of the merchant vessels, which had been carried into port for trial, would be released; and that a disposition for peace with the United States existed in the British cabinet.

These advices opened to the president a prospect of restoring a good understanding between the two nations, and induced him immediately to nominate an envoy to settle existing differences, and to negotiate commercial arrangements. The nomination of Mr. Jay was approved, in the senate, by a majority of ten.

To those opposed to the administration, no step could have been more unexpected, or disagreeable, than this decisive measure of the president. Prejudices against Great Britain had risen to their height, and hostilities against her were loudly demanded, as both just and necessary. It was not singular, therefore, that for this act, the president should receive the severest censures of the opposition party, nor that all who favoured his efforts for peace should be included in the general denunciation.

XXVI. The suspension of hostilities against the Indians in the northwest, in consequence of their consenting to a conference in the spring of 1794, has already been noticed. This effort to conclude a treaty with them failing, Gen. Wayne, who had succeeded Gen. St. Clair, engaged the Indians, August 20th, 1794, on the banks of the Miami, and gained a complete victory over them.

The American troops engaged in this battle did not exceed nine hundred; the Indians amounted to two thousand. In this decisive engagement, Gen. Wayne lost one hundred and seven in killed and wounded, including officers. After the battle he proceeded to lay waste the whole Indian country. By means of this victory over the Miamis, a general war with the Six Nations, and all the tribes northwest of the Ohio, was prevented.

XXVII. This year, 1794, was distinguished by an insurrection in Pennsylvania, growing out of laws enacted by congress, in 1791, laying duties on spirits distilled within the United States, and upon stills. In August, the president issued his proclamation, commanding the inaur-

gents to disperse. This not having the desired effect, a respectable body of militia was ordered out, under Gov. Lee, of Maryland, on whose approach the insurgents laid down their arms, solicited the clemency of the government, and promised future submission to the laws.

From the time that duties were laid upon spirits distilled within the United States, &c. combinations were formed, in the four western counties of Pennsylvania, to prevent their collection. Numerous meetings were held at different times and places, at which resolutions were passed, and, in several instances, violences were committed upon the officers of the revenue. Eighteen of the insurgents were taken, and tried for treason, but not convicted.

XXVIII. 1795. January 1st, Col. Hamilton resigned the office of secretary of the treasury, and was succeeded by Oliver Wolcott, of Connecticut. Nearly at the same time, Timothy Pickering succeeded Gen. Knox in the department of war.

XXIX. In June, Mr. Jay having succeeded in negotiating a treaty with Great Britain, the senate was convened to consider its merits. After an elaborate discussion of it, that body advised to its ratification by a majority of twenty to ten. Notwithstanding the great opposition to it that prevailed among the enemies of Great Britain, the president gave it his signature. Contrary to the predictions of many in the country, the treaty settled existing difficulties between the two nations, prevented a war, which previously seemed fast approaching, and proved of great advantage to the United States.

The treaty, when published, found one party prepared for its condemnation, while the other was not ready for its defence. Time was necessary for a judicious and careful consideration of its merits.

In the populous cities, meetings were immediately called, and resolutions and addresses forwarded to the president, requesting him to withhold his assent. Upon the president, however, these had no other effect, than to induce him to weigh still more carefully the merits of the treaty. When, at length, he was satisfied of its utility, he signed it, although he thereby incurred the censures of a numerous portion of the citizens.

XXX. In the course of the following autumn, treaties were concluded with the dey of Algiers, and with the Miamis in the west. By the former treaty, American citizens in captivity in Algiers, were liberated, and by the latter, the western frontiers of the United States were secured from savage invasion. A treaty with Spain soon after followed, by which the claims of the United States, on the important points of boundary, and the navigation of the Mississippi, were fully conceded.

XXI. On the 1st of June, 1796, **TENNESSEE** was admitted, by act of congress, into the Union as a State.

Tennessee derives its name from its principal river. This name, in the language of the Indians, signifies a curved spoon, the curvature, to their imaginations, resembling that of the river Tennessee.

The territory of Tennessee was granted in 1664, by Charles II. to the earl of Clarendon, and others, being included in the limits of the Carolinas. About the beginning of the next century, Carolina was divided into two provinces, and Tennessee fell to the lot of the northern province. Near the year 1754, fifty families were settled on the Cumberland river, where Nashville now stands; but they were dislodged by the savages soon after. In 1765, a number of emigrants settled themselves beyond the present limits of North Carolina, and were the first of the colonists of Tennessee. By the year 1773, the inhabitants had considerably increased. When the constitution of North Carolina was formed, in 1776, that district sent deputies to the meeting. In the year 1780, a small colony of about forty families, under the direction of James Robertson, crossed the mountains, and settled on the Cumberland river, where they founded Nashville.

In 1785, the inhabitants of Tennessee, feeling the inconveniences of a government so remote as that in the capital of North Carolina, endeavoured to form an independent one, to which they intended to give the name of the "State of Franklin;" but differing among themselves, the scheme for the time was abandoned. In 1789, the legislature of North Carolina passed an act ceding the territory, on certain conditions, to the United States. Congress, in the following year, accepted the cession, and by another act, passed on the twenty-sixth of May, 1790, provided for its government under the title of "The territory of the United States, south of the Ohio." In 1796, Congress passed an act enabling the people to form a state consti-

tion, which having been adopted and approved, Tennessee was acknowledged as a sovereign state in the union.

XXXII. On the meeting of congress in 1796, resolutions were passed to carry into effect the treaties negotiated the preceding year. On the subject of the treaty with Great Britain, the liveliest sensibility still prevailed. After a spirited and protracted debate of seven weeks, on the subject of making the necessary arrangements for this treaty, resolutions to that effect passed the house by a majority of only three.

XXXIII. As the time for a new election of the chief magistrate of the Union approached, Gen. Washington signified his intention to retire from publick life. Wishing to terminate his political course with an act suitable to his own character, and permanently useful to his countrymen, he published a valedictory address to the people of the United States, fraught with maxims of the highest political importance, and with sentiments of the warmest affection for his country.

In February, 1797, the votes for his successor were opened, and counted in the presence of both houses of congress. The highest number appearing in favour of Mr. Adams, he was declared to be elected president of the United States, for the four years ensuing, commencing on the 4th of March. Mr. Jefferson succeeded Mr. Adams in the vice-presidency

Notes.

XXXIV. Manners. We can remark, during this period, no very distinct change in the manners of the people of the United States, except that the introduction of French philosophy seems to have affected, in some degree, the sober habits and strict morality of the people, which, although relaxed by the war, had now begun to resume their influence.

XXXV. Religion. At the close of the preceding period, we observed that religion had revived, in a degree; from the injuries which it suffered during the revolutionary war; and we might have expected, that under the auspices of a wise and settled government, conducted by a practical christian, like Washington, it would have acquired a still more commanding influence. Such, however, was not the fact.

As the people of the United States heartily espoused the cause of the revolution in France, and sympathized with that people in their struggle for freedom, it was but too natural, that the sentiments of the revolutionists, on other than political subjects, should be imbibed. As the French revolutionists, were almost universally deists, or atheists, these sentiments were extensively spread over the United States.

For a time, the boldness of the enterprises, the splendour of the victories, and the importance of the conquests, achieved by the French republick, promoted the extension of French infidelity in the United States. "Most eyes," says Dr. Dwight, "were disabled from seeing the nature of the purposes, which the revolutionists had in view, and of the characters which were exhibited on this singular stage. In the agitation and amazement excited in all men; few retained so steady optics as to discern, without confusion, the necessary consequence of this stupendous shock."

Infidelity was also greatly extended, at this time, by the writings of Paine, Godwin, and others, which were industriously circulated through the country. The perspicuous and simple style of Paine, his keen powers of ridicule, directed against the Bible, and above all, the gratitude which multitudes felt for the aid his pen had given to our revolution, contributed to impart to him a peculiarly powerful influence. His vicious life, however, and the horrible enormities, committed by the French revolutionists, gave such a fearful comment upon their principles, as at length, in a great measure, to bring them into discredit, and to arrest their growing influence.

XXXVI. Trade and Commerce. These flourished, during this period beyond all former example. In 1797, the exports of the United States, of all kinds, amounted to fifty-six millions, eight hundred and fifty thousand, two hundred and six dollars. The imp

amounted to seventy-five millions, three hundred and seventy-nine thousand, four hundred and six dollars. Our vessels visited every part of the world, and brought wealth and luxuries from every country.

XXXVII. Agriculture. Aside from the importance of agriculture, as furnishing us with the greatest portion of our food, it began now to derive greater consequence, as furnishing materials for our manufactures, and, still more, as contributing largely to our exports. In 1796, it was estimated that *three fourths* of the inhabitants of the United States, if not a greater proportion, were employed in agricultural pursuits.

XXXVIII. Arts and Manufactures. During this period, manufactures attracted the attention of government. Mr. Hamilton, secretary of the treasury, made a report to congress, on the subject, in which he set forth their importance to the country, and urged the policy of aiding them. Since that time the revenue laws have been framed, with a view to the encouragement of manufactures, and their promotion has been considered as a part of the settled policy of the United States. Although the flourishing state of commerce commanded the attention, and absorbed the capital of the country in some degree, to the exclusion of other objects, still manufactures made considerable progress.

XXXIX. Population. The inhabitants of the United States, at the close of this period, amounted to about five millions.

XL. Education. The adoption of the federal constitution placed the political affairs of the United States on a permanent basis, and since that period learning has flourished.

In 1791, the university of Vermont was established at Burlington; Williams' College, Massachusetts, in 1793; Union College, at Schenectady, New-York, and Greenville College, Tennessee, in 1794; Bowdoin College, at Brunswick in Maine, in 1795. An historical society was formed in Massachusetts, in 1791, and incorporated in 1794. It has published twelve volumes of documents, designed to illustrate the past and present state of the country.

Reflections.

XLI. A short time since, we were occupied in considering the United States struggling for independence, under Washington, as a *leader of their armies*. Under his guidance, we saw them triumph and become a free nation. We have also seen them, with Washington at the *head of the convention*, forming our excellent constitution. We now see them with Washington their *chief magistrate*, taking their place among the sovereignties of the earth, and launching forth on the full tide of successful experiment.

Under Washington, as our leader, we won our independence; formed our constitution; established our government. And what reward does he ask for services like these? Does he ask a diadem? Does he lay his hand upon our national treasury? Does he claim to be emperor of the nation that has risen up under his auspices? No—although “first in war—first in peace—first in the hearts of his countrymen,”—he sublimely retires to the peaceful occupations of rural life, content with the honour of having been instrumental in achieving the independence, and securing the happiness of his country.

There is no parallel in history to this! By the side of Washington, Alexander is degraded to a selfish destroyer of his race; Cæsar becomes the dazzled votary of power; and Bonaparte, a baffled aspirant to universal dominion.

Washington has been the theme of eulogy in every nation. “His military successes,” it has been well said, “were more solid than brilliant, and judgment, rather than enthusiasm, regulated his conduct in battle. In the midst of the inevitable disorder of camps, and the excesses inseparable from civil war, humanity always found a refuge in his tent. In the morning of triumph, and in the darkness of adversity, he was alike serene; at all times tranquil as wisdom, and simple as virtue. After the acknowledgment of American Independence, when the unanimous suffrages of a free people called him to administer their government, his administration, partaking of his character, was mild and firm at home; noble and prudent abroad.”

UNITED STATES.



Period VIII.

DISTINGUISHED FOR ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.



John Adams,

Extending from the inauguration of President Adams, 1797, to the inauguration of Thomas Jefferson, as president of the United States, 1801.

Section I. On the 4th of March, 1797, Mr. Adams, in the presence of the senate, of the officers of the general and state governments, and a numerous concourse of spectators, took the oath of office, as president of the United States.

The condition of the country, at the close of Washington's administration, and the commencement of Mr.

Adams', was greatly improved from that of 1789, the period at which the former entered upon his office.

At home, a sound credit had been established; an immense floating debt had been funded in a manner perfectly satisfactory to the creditors, and an ample revenue had been provided. Those difficulties, which a system of internal taxation, on its first introduction, is doomed to encounter, were completely removed; and the authority of the government was firmly established.

Funds for the gradual payment of the debt had been provided; a considerable part of it had actually been discharged; and that system which is now operating its entire extinction, had been matured and adopted. The agricultural and commercial wealth of the nation had increased beyond all former example. The numerous tribes of Indians, on the west, had been taught by arms and by justice, to respect the United States, and to continue in peace.

Abroad, the differences with Spain had been accommodated. The free navigation of the Mississippi had been acquired, with the use of New-Orleans, as a place of deposit for three years, and afterwards, until some equivalent place should be designated.

Those causes of mutual exasperation, which had threatened to involve the United States in a war with the greatest maritime and commercial power in the world, had been removed; and the military posts which had been occupied within their territory, from their existence as a nation, had been evacuated. Treaties had been formed with Algiers and Tripoli, and no captures appear to have been made by Tunis; so that the Mediterranean was opened to American vessels.

This bright prospect was, indeed, in part, shaded by the discontents of France. But the causes of these discontents, it had been impossible to avoid, without surrendering the right of self-government. Such was the situation of the United States at the close of Washington's, and the commencement of Adams' administration.

II. Just before Washington retired from office, learning that France meditated hostilities against the United States, by way of depredations on her West India commerce, he had recalled Mr. Monroe, then minister to that court, and despatched Gen. C. C. Pinckney, minister plenipotentiary, to adjust existing differences.

Immediately upon succeeding to the presidency, Mr. Adams received intelligence that the French republic had

announced to Gen. Pinckney its determination "not to receive another minister from the United States until after the redress of grievances," &c.

On the receipt of this intelligence, the president issued his proclamation to convene congress on the 15th of June. In his speech on that occasion, having stated the indignity offered the United States by France, in refusing to receive her minister, the president, in the tone of a high-minded and independent American, urged congress "to repel this indignity of the French government, by a course which shall convince that government and the world that we are not a degraded people, humiliated under a colonial spirit of fear and a sense of inferiority, fitted to be the miserable instruments of foreign influence, and regardless of national honour, character and interest."

Notwithstanding this language, the president still retained a desire for peace. Upon his recommendation, three envoys extraordinary, C. C. Pinckney, Elbridge Gerry, and John Marshall, were appointed to the French republic, to carry into effect the pacifick dispositions of the United States.

III. For a considerable time, no certain intelligence reached the country respecting the negotiations at Paris. At length, in the winter of 1798, letters were received from the American envoys, indicating an unfavourable state of things; and in the spring despatches arrived, which announced the total failure of the mission.

Before the French government would acknowledge the envoys, money, by way of *tribute*, was demanded in explicit terms of the United States. This being refused, an attempt was next made to excite the fears of the American ministers for their country and themselves. The immense power of France was painted in glowing colours, the humiliation of the house of Austria was stated, and the conquest of Britain was confidently anticipated. In the friendship of France alone, they were told, could America look for safety.

During these transactions, occasion was repeatedly taken to insult the American government; open war was continued to be urged by the cruisers of France on American commerce; and the flag of the United States was a sufficient justification

for the capture and condemnation of any vessel, over which it waved.

IV. Perceiving further negotiations to be in vain, congress now proceeded to the adoption of vigorous measures for retaliating injuries which had been sustained, and for repelling still greater injuries which were threatened. Amongst these measures was the augmentation of the regular army.

A regiment of artillerists and engineers was added to the permanent establishment, and the president was authorized to raise twelve additional regiments of infantry, and one regiment of cavalry. He was also authorized to appoint officers for a provisional army, and to receive and organize volunteer corps.

By the unanimous consent of the senate, Gen. Washington was appointed lieutenant-general and commander in chief of all armies raised, or to be raised, in the United States.

V. While preparations were thus making for war, indirect pacifick overtures were communicated by the French government to the president, and a willingness expressed to accommodate existing differences on reasonable terms.

Solicitous to restore that harmony and good understanding, which had formerly existed between the two countries, the president listened to these overtures, and appointed three envoys, Oliver Ellsworth, chief justice of the United States, Patrick Henry, then late governour of Virginia, and William Vans Murray, minister at the Hague, to discuss and settle, by treaty, all controversiés between the United States and France.

On the arrival of these envoys at Paris, they found the government in the hands of Bonaparte, who had not been concerned in the transactions which had disturbed the peace of the two countries. Negotiations were commenced, which terminated in a treaty of peace, September 30th, 1800, soon after which, the provisional army in America was, by order of congress, disbanded.

VI. On the 14th of December, 1799, Gen. Washington expired at his seat, at Mount Vernon, in Virginia, leaving a nation to mourn his loss, and to embalm his memory with their tears.

VII. In 1800, agreeably to a resolution passed in congress in 1790, the seat of government was transferred from Philadelphia to the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia.

The *District of Columbia* is a territory of ten miles square. It is about three hundred miles from the sea, at the head of tide water on the Potomac, which runs through it diagonally, near the centre. It was ceded, in 1790, to the United States, by Maryland and Virginia, and it is under the immediate government of congress.

VIII. On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. Adams' term of office as president would expire. Before the arrival of the time for a new election, it had been pretty certainly predicted that he could not be re-elected. His administration, through the whole course of it, had been the subject of much popular clamour, especially by the democratic party. But the measures which most excited the opposition of that party, and which were most successfully employed to destroy the popularity of Mr. Adams' administration, and to place the government in other hands, were several laws passed during his presidency, among which were the "*Alien*" and "*Sedition*" laws.

By the "*alien law*," the president was authorized to order any alien, whom he should judge dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States, &c. to depart out of the territory, within such time" as he should judge proper, upon penalty of being "imprisoned for a term not exceeding three years," &c.

The design of the "*sedition law*," so called, was to punish the abuse of speech, and of the press. It imposed a heavy pecuniary fine, and imprisonment for a term of years, upon such as should combine or conspire together to oppose any measure of government; upon such as should write, print, utter publish, &c. "any false, scandalous, and malicious writing against the government of the United States, or either house of the congress of the United States, or the president," &c.

These acts, together with others for raising a standing army, and imposing a direct tax and internal duties, with other causes, so increased the opposition to Mr. Adams' administration, as to prevent his re-election, and greatly to weaken the strength of that party to whom he owed his elevation to the presidency.

IX. The strife of parties, during the term of electioneering, was spirited. On canvassing the votes of the electors for president, it was found that Mr. Jefferson, and Mr. Burr had each seventy-three votes, Mr. Adams sixty-five, and C. C. Pinckney sixty-four. As the constitution provided that the person having the greatest number of votes should be president, and Mr. Jefferson and Mr. Burr having an equal number, it became the duty of the house of representatives, voting by States, to decide between these two gentlemen.

The ballot was taken for several days in succession, February, 1801, before a choice was made. The federalists generally supported Mr. Burr; the democrattick party Mr. Jefferson. At length, after much political heat and party animosity, the choice fell upon the latter, who was declared to be elected president of the United States for four years, commencing March 4th, 1801. Mr. Burr was elected vice-president.

Notes.

X. **Manners.** The manners of the people of the United States underwent no marked change during this period.

XI. **Religion.** Although infidelity does not seem to have made much progress in the United States, during this period, it was evident that it had taken deep root in many minds.

Infidels, however, were less confident, and less ready to avow their sentiments. They stood abashed before the world, at the fearful and blood-chilling horrors which their principles had poured out upon France. Their doctrines were, at the same time, powerfully refuted by the ablest men both in England and America. At length, they ceased to make proselytes, spoke favourably of the Christian religion, generally admitted that it was absolutely necessary to good government; and error, with regard to religion, assumed a new form.

Towards the close of this period, a revival of religion com-

menced in New-England, and seems to have been the beginning of that series of revivals which have since overspread the United States. Some sects which had before regarded "revivals of religion" with suspicion or aversion, became convinced of their utility, and began to promote them.

XII. Trade and Commerce. Trade and commerce were still prosperous, and the remarks made in respect to them, under period VII. apply to them during this period:

The exports, in 1801, were ninety-three millions twenty thousand five hundred and seventy-three dollars, the imports, one hundred and eleven millions, three hundred and sixty-three thousand five hundred and eleven dollars.

XIII. Agriculture. Agriculture still continued to flourish.

XIV. Arts and Manufactures. The general remarks on the preceding period, relative to this subject, apply, without material alteration, to this period.

XV. Population. The number of inhabitants, at the close of this period, was not far from five millions five hundred thousand.

XVI. Education. We have nothing in particular to observe in relation to education. Publick and private schools, however, were multiplied as the people increased, and as new settlements were made.

In 1798, a college was founded at *Lexington, Kentucky*, called the *Transylvania University*. *Middlebury college*, in *Vermont*, was founded in 1800. At the commencement of the 18th century, there was in New-England but one college completely founded, but now there were six; in the colonies south of Connecticut, there was only one, but now there were fifteen or sixteen.

UNITED STATES.

Period XX.

DISTINGUISHED FOR JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.



Thomas Jefferson.

Extending from the inauguration of President Jefferson, 1801, to the inauguration of James Madison as president of the United States, in 1809.

Section. I. On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. Jefferson, agreeably to the constitution, was regularly inducted into the office of president of the United States.

II. The commencement of Mr. Jefferson's administration was marked by a removal, from responsible and lucra-

tive offices, of a great portion of those whose political opinions were opposed to his own, on the ground that most of the offices at the disposal of the government, had been exclusively bestowed on the adherents of the opposite party.

In a reply to a remonstrance of merchants of New-Haven, against the removal from office of a federal collector of that port, and the appointment of a gentleman of opposite politics, the president assigned this as the reason of the course he adopted.

"It would have been to me," said he in that reply, "a circumstance of great relief, had I found a moderate participation of office in the hands of the majority, (the democratick party.) I would gladly have left to time and accident to raise them to their just share. But their *total* exclusion calls for prompt correctives. I shall correct the procedure; but, that done, return with joy to that state of things, when the only question concerning a candidate shall be, Is he honest? Is he capable? Is he faithful to the constitution?"

III. Congress met on the 8th of December. In his speech at the opening of the session, the president recommended the abolition of the internal taxes—the repeal of the act passed towards the close of Mr Adams' administration, re-organizing the United States' courts, and erecting sixteen new judges—and an enlargement of the rights of naturalization. The debates on these several topics in both houses of congress were extended to great length, and displayed much eloquence, argument, and warmth. The recommendation of the president, notwithstanding the opposition, prevailed, and bills in accordance therewith were passed.

The internal taxes, from the time of their establishment, had been extremely unpopular with the party, which had elevated Mr. Jefferson to the presidency. It was a favourite measure, therefore of his, to procure their abolition.

The national judicial establishment originally consisted of a supreme court, with six judges, who twice a year made a tour of the United States in three circuits. Under this arrangement, great inconveniences were experienced by the court, the bar, and the suitors. The new arrangement in the judicial system, and the increase of judges at the close of Mr. Adams' term, had excited, in a large portion of the citizens, the hope of a more prompt and impartial administration of justice. To that

portion of the community the repealing act was a painful disappointment.

IV. In 1802, OHIO was admitted by act of congress, as an independent state into the Union.

The state of Ohio derived its name from the river Ohio, which sweeps the southeastern border of the state.

Until 1787, it was inhabited only by Indians, a few Moravians, and trespassers on lands belonging to the publick. By virtue of her charter, the territory was claimed by Virginia, and held by her, although the original charter of Connecticut, extending west to the Pacific Ocean, included a great part of it.

In 1781, the legislature of Virginia ceded to the United States all her rights to the territory northwest of the river Ohio, excepting some few military tracts. In 1788, the first settlement was begun at Marietta, under General Rufus Putnam, from New-England. It had been the year before erected into one district, including the present territories of Michigan, Illinois, and Indiana.

Until 1795, the settlement of Ohio was retarded by constant wars with the Indians. But at that time a general peace with the different tribes being effected by General Wayne, under Washington, the population of the territory rapidly increased by emigrations from Europe, and still more from New-England.

V. The year 1804 was distinguished for an event, which filled a considerable portion of the American people with great grief. This was the death of Gen. Hamilton, who fell in a duel with Col. Burr, the vice-president of the United States.

VI. Mr. Jefferson's first term of office ending this year, a new election took place, at which he was re-chosen president, and on the 4th of March again took the oath of office; George Clinton, of New-York, was elected vice-president.

VII. During the year which commenced the second of Mr. Jefferson's presidency, a war, which had been continued for several years between the United States and Tripoli, was concluded, and a treaty of peace negotiated by Col. Lear, between the two countries, by which the Tripolitan and American prisoners were exchanged, and the sum of sixty thousand dollars given to the pacha.

The history of this war deserves a place in these pages. The commerce of the United States had been long annoyed by the Tripolitan cruisers—many merchantmen had been taken, and their crews imprisoned and cruelly treated.

As early as 1803, a squadron under Com. Preble had been sent to the Mediterranean, to protect the American commerce, and to bring the corsairs to submission. During the same year, Captain Bainbridge, in the *Philadelphia*, joined Commodore Preble, and in chasing a cruiser into the harbour of Tripoli, grounded his vessel, and he and his crew were taken prisoners.

Shortly after the surrender of the *Philadelphia*, the Tripolitans got her afloat, and warped her into the outward harbour. In this situation, Lieutenant, afterwards Commodore, Decatur, conceived the bold plan of attempting to set her on fire. He had the day before captured a small xebec, laden with fruit and oil, which was bound to Tripoli; and having on board the *Enterprize*, which he commanded, an old pilot, who understood the Tripolitan language, he suggested his plan to Commodore Preble, who approved of it. He would accept of only twenty men, although a much greater number volunteered, and but one officer, Mr. Morris, a midshipman. With these men concealed in the bottom of the xebec, on the approach of night he sailed for the *Philadelphia*, taking with him the old pilot. On approaching the frigate, the xebec was hailed, when the pilot answered that he had lost his cable and anchor, and begged permission to make fast to the frigate until the morning. This the crew refused, but said he might make fast to their stern hawser until they sent a boat to the admiral for leave.

As the boat put off for the shore, Lieutenant Decatur with his brave companions leaped on board the frigate, and in a few minutes swept the deck of every Tripolitan. Of fifty, not one reached the shore. The frigate was now set on fire, and while the flames rose to spread consternation among the Tripolitans, they served to lighten the way for the heroick Decatur and his band to go back in safety to the American squadron. Of the party, not one was killed, and but one wounded. This was a seaman who saved the life of his commander. In the first desperate struggle on board the *Philadelphia*, Decatur was disarmed, and fell. A sabre was already lifted to strike the fatal blow, when this seaman, observing the perilous situation of his officer, reached forward, and received the blow of the sabre on his arm.

In consequence of the burning of the *Philadelphia*, the sufferings of Commodore Bainbridge and his crew, as well as those of other Americans in captivity at Tripoli, were greatly increased. The accounts of their sufferings, transmitted to the United States, excited the sympathy of all classes, and a gene-

ral cry for exertions to effect their deliverance was heard from all parts of the Union.

It happened that some time before this, the then reigning bashaw of Tripoli, Jussuf, third son of the late bashaw, had murdered his father and eldest brother, and proposed to murder the second, in order to possess himself of the throne. But the latter, Hamet Caramelli, made his escape, and Jussuf, without further opposition, usurped the government.

Hamet took refuge in Egypt, where he was kindly treated by the beys. Here he was, on the arrival of an accredited agent of the United States, General Eaton, who revived his almost expiring hopes of regaining his rightful kingdom.

General Eaton had been consul for the United States up the Mediterranean, and was returning home when he heard of the situation of Hamet. Conceiving a plan of liberating the Americans in captivity at Tripoli, by means of the assistance of Hamet, and, at the same time, of restoring this exile to his throne, he advised with Hamet, who readily listened to the project, and gave his co-operation.

A convention was accordingly entered into between General Eaton on the part of the United States, and Hamet, by which the latter stipulated much in favour of the Americans, and was promised to be restored to his throne.

With a small force, consisting of seamen from the American squadron, the followers of Hamet, and some Egyptian troops, General Eaton and Hamet, with incredible toil and suffering, passed the desert of Barca, and took possession of Derne, the capital of a large province belonging to the kingdom of Tripoli. The forces of Eaton were now so much increased, and the cause of Hamet had become so popular, that the prospect was flattering of his being able to reduce the city of Tripoli, and of effecting the liberation of the captives without ransom.

The successes of Eaton struck the usurper Jussuf with terror. Trembling for his fate in this juncture, he proposed to Mr. Lear, the consul-general of America, then in the Mediterranean, to enter into negotiation. Mr. Lear, who was authorized to enter into negotiation, accepted the proposal, although he knew of the success of Eaton and Hamet, and a treaty ensued. Eaton and Hamet were consequently arrested in the prosecution of their purpose, and the unfortunate exile failed of his promised restoration to the throne.

In 1805, Hamet visited the United States with the expectation of obtaining some remuneration for his services, from America, and for her failure in fulfilling her stipulations to him by General Eaton. A proposition to this effect was brought before congress, but after much discussion was rejected.

VIII. During this year, 1805, MICHIGAN became a distinct territorial government of the United States.

The Michigan territory, when first discovered by the whites, was inhabited by the *Hurons*, a tribe of Indians, many of whom were converted to Christianity by the Jesuit Missionaries in 1648. About the year 1670, the *Hurons* were defeated and dispersed by the Six Nations, about which time the French took possession of the territory, and built a fort at Detroit, and another at Michillimackinac. Little, however, was done by the French to settle the country.

At the peace of 1763, the territory was ceded by the French to Great Britain, and by the latter to the United States in 1783. Until 1787, it remained in the same state of nature, without government, or any considerable settlements; but at this time the several states who had claims upon it, ceded them to the United States, and a territorial government was instituted over all the territory northwest of the Ohio.

This territory remained under one government until 1800, when the present state of Ohio was detached, and made a distinct government. This was followed in 1801, by a further separation of Indiana and Illinois; and, in 1805, Michigan was also detached, and was erected into a distinct territorial government. Gen. Hull was appointed by Mr. Jefferson the first governor.

IX. In the autumn of 1806, a project was detected, at the head of which was Col. Burr, for revolutionizing the territory west of the Alleghanies, and of establishing an independent empire there, of which New-Orleans was to be the capital, and himself the chief. Towards the accomplishment of this scheme, which it afterwards appeared had been some time in contemplation, the skilful cunning and intrigue of Col. Burr were directed. Happily, however, government, being apprised of his designs, arrested him, while as yet he had few adherents, and before his standard was raised. He was brought to trial at Richmond on a charge of treason committed within the district of Virginia; but no overt act being proved against him in that State, he was released.

In addition to this project, Col. Burr had formed another, which, in case of failure in the first, might be carried on independently of it;—this was an attack on Mexico, and the establishment of an empire there. “A third object was provided, merely ostensible, to wit, the settlement of the pretended pur-

chase of a tract of country on the Washita, claimed by a Baron Bastrop. This was to serve as a pretext for all his preparations, an allurements for such followers as really wished to acquire settlements in that country, and a cover under which to retreat in the event of a final discomfiture of both branches of his real designs.

"He found at once that the attachment of the western country to the present union was not to be shaken; that its dissolution could not be effected with the consent of the inhabitants; and that his resources were inadequate as yet, to effect it by force. He determined, therefore, to seize New-Orleans, plunder the bank there, possess himself of the military and naval stores, and proceed on his expedition to Mexico.

"He collected, therefore, from all quarters, where himself or his agents possessed influence, all the ardent, restless, desperate, disaffected persons who were for an enterprise analogous to their characters. He also seduced good, well-meaning citizens; some by assurances that he possessed the confidence of the government, and was acting under its secret patronage; and others by offers of land in Bastrop's claim in the Washita."

X. 1806. To understand the subsequent political history of the United States, and those measures of government which were taken in relation to foreign powers, it is necessary to glance at the state of the European nations, at this period—particularly that of England and France.

These two countries were now at war with each other, and in their controversies had involved most of the continental powers. Towards the belligerents, America was endeavouring to maintain a neutrality, and peaceably to continue a commerce with them. It was hardly to be expected, however, that jealousies would not arise between the contending powers in relation to the conduct of America, and that events would not occur, calculated to injure her commerce, and disturb her peace.

In addition to these circumstances, a controversy had long existed, and continued to exist, between the United States and Great Britain, in respect to the right of searching neutral ships, and impressing seamen. Great Britain claimed it as among her prerogatives to take her native born subjects, wherever found, for her navy, and of searching American vessels for that purpose. As yet no adjustment of this controversy had been effected. Notwithstanding

ing the remonstrances of the American government, the officers of the British navy not unfrequently seized native born British subjects, who had voluntarily enlisted on board our vessels. They also impressed into the British service some thousands of American seamen.

XI. May 16th, 1806, the British government issued an order in council, declaring the ports and rivers from the Elbe, a river in Germany, to Brest, a town of France, to be in a state of blockade. By this order, American vessels, trading to these and intervening ports, were liable to seizure and condemnation.

XII. In the ensuing November, 1806, Bonaparte issued his celebrated decree at Berlin, called the "*Berlin decree*" by which all the British Islands were declared to be in a state of blockade, and all intercourse with them was prohibited. This decree violated the treaty between the United States and France, and the law of nations.

The following are the principal articles of that decree, which related to the obstruction of American commerce.

1. The British Islands are in a state of blockade.
2. All commerce and correspondence with them is prohibited.
3. No vessel coming directly from England, or her colonies, or having been there since the publication of this decree, shall be admitted into any port.

XIII. This decree of Bonaparte at Berlin, was in part retaliated by the British government in an *order of council*, issued January 7th, 1807, by which all coasting trade with France was prohibited.

XIV. While measures were thus taking by France and England, whose tendency was to injure American commerce, and to involve her in a controversy with both, an event occurred which filled the American people with indignation, and called for immediate executive notice.

This was an attack upon the American frigate *Chesapeake*, Commodore Barron, off the capes of Virginia, by the British frigate *Leopard* of fifty guns. The attack was occasioned by the refusal of Commodore Barron to surrender several seamen, who had deserted from the British armed ship *Melampus*, a short time previous, and had vo-

luntarily enlisted on board the Chesapeake. After crippling the American frigate, which made no resistance, the commander of the Leopard took from her the seamen in question, two of whom had been proved to be American citizens.

The persons who deserted from the Melampus, then lying in Hampton Roads, were William Ware, Daniel Martin, John Strachan, John Little, and Ambrose Watts. Within a month from their escape from the Melampus, the first three of these deserters offered themselves for enlistment, and were received on board the Chesapeake, then at Norfolk, Virginia, preparing for sea.

The British consul at Norfolk, being apprized of this circumstance, wrote a letter to the American naval officer, requesting these men to be returned. With this request the officer refusing to comply, the British agent lost no time in endeavouring to procure an order from government for their surrender. In consequence of this application, the secretary of the navy ordered an examination into the characters and claims of the men in question. The required examination resulted in proof that Ware, Martin, and Strachan, were natives of America. The two former had *protections*, or notarial certificates of their being American citizens. Strachan had no *protection*, but asserted that he lost it previously to his escape. Such being the circumstances of the men, the government refused to surrender them.

On the 22d of June, the Chesapeake weighed anchor and proceeded to sea. She passed the British ships Bellona and Melampus, lying in Lynnhaven bay, whose appearance was friendly. There were two other ships that lay off Cape Henry, one of which, the Leopard, Captain Humphreys, weighed anchor, and in a few hours came along side the Chesapeake.

A British officer immediately came on board, and demanded the deserters. To this Capt. Barron replied, that he did not know of any being there, and that his duty forbade him to allow of any muster of his crew, except by their own officers.

During this interview, Barron noticed some proceedings of a hostile nature on board the adverse ship, but he could not be persuaded that any thing but menace was intended by them. After the British officer departed, he gave orders to clear his gun deck, and after some time, he directed his men to their quarters, secretly, and without beat of drum: still, however, without any serious apprehensions of an attack.

Before these orders could be executed, the Leopard commenced a heavy fire. This fire unfortunately was very destructive. In about thirty minutes, the hull, rigging, and spars of

the Chesapeake were greatly damaged, three men were killed and sixteen wounded; among the latter was the captain himself. Such was the previous disorder, that during this time, the utmost exertions were insufficient to prepare the ship for action, and the captain thought proper to strike his colours.

The British captain refused to accept the surrender of the Chesapeake, but took from her crew, Ware, Martin, and Strachan, the three men formerly demanded as deserters, and a fourth, John Wilson, claimed as a runaway from a merchant ship.

XV. Such was the agitation of the publick mind, in consequence of this outrage committed on the Chesapeake, that the president conceived himself required to notice the transaction, and by some decisive publick act, to show how deeply America conceived herself to be wounded. Accordingly, on the 2d of July, the president issued his proclamation, ordering all British armed vessels to leave the waters of the United States, and forbidding them to enter, until satisfaction for the attack on the Chesapeake should be made by the British government.

Mr. Monroe was at this time the minister of the United States, at the court of St. James. Early in September, he received the instructions of the American government, pertaining to the attack on the Chesapeake, and was required to demand reparation for that attack, and, as an essential part of that reparation, security against future impressments from American ships. The British minister, Mr. Canning, however, protested against conjoining the *general question* concerning the impressment of persons from neutral merchant ships, with the *particular affray* between the Leopard and the Chesapeake.

As Mr. Monroe was not authorized to treat these subjects separately, further negotiation between these two ministers was suspended, and Mr. Rose was appointed, by the British government, as a special minister to the United States, empowered to treat concerning the *particular injury* complained of, but not to discuss the *general question* of impressing persons from merchant ships.

XVI. While such measures were taking in England, in relation to the affair of the Chesapeake, congress, which

had been summoned before the regular time, by proclamation of the president, met on the 27th of October.

In his message to congress at this time, the president entered fully into the state of our relations with Great Britain—informed them of a treaty which had been negotiated with the British government, by Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney—but which he had rejected, principally because it made no sufficient provision on the subject of impressments—stated the affair of the attack on the Chesapeake—his proclamation to British armed vessels to quit the waters of the United States—his instructions to the American minister at London, in relation to reparation expected from the British government, and his expectation of speedily hearing from England the result of the measures which had been taken.

XVII. On the 11th of November, were issued at London the celebrated *British Orders in Council*, retaliatory upon the French government for the Berlin decree of November, 1806. By these orders in council, France and her allies, all nations at war with Great Britain, and all places from which the British flag is excluded, were declared to be under the same restrictions, in point of trade and navigation, as if the same were in a state of blockade.

XVIII. Before the arrival of Mr. Rose, congress was sedulously employed in considering the state of the nation, and in making provision for putting the country in a posture of defence. Acts passed, appropriating one million of dollars to be employed by the president in equipping one hundred thousand of the national militia; eight hundred and fifty-two thousand five hundred dollars, for building one hundred and eighty-eight gun-boats; one million of dollars for building, repairing, and completing fortifications, and for raising six thousand six hundred men, infantry, riflemen, artillery, and dragoons, as an addition to the standing army. On the 22d of December, an act passed, laying an *embargo* on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States.

XIX. On the 17th of December, Bonaparte, by way of retaliating the British orders in council, issued a decree, called "*the Milan decree*," declaring every vessel denationalized which shall have submitted to a search by

a British ship ; and every vessel a good prize, which shall sail to or from Great Britain, or any of its colonies, or countries, occupied by British troops.

XX. Mr. Rose arrived in America on the 25th of December. The American minister was soon after informed, that he, Mr. Rose, was expressly forbidden by his government to make any proposal, touching the great subject of complaint, so long as the president's proclamation of July 2d, excluding British armed vessels from the waters of the United States, should be in force.

For a time, the president refused to annul this proclamation till the atonement was not only solemnly offered, but formally accepted ; but in order to elude this difficulty, he finally agreed to revoke his proclamation, on the day of the date of the act, or treaty, by which reparation should be made for the recent violence. This concession, however, was built on two conditions ; first, the terms of reparation which the minister was charged to offer, must be previously made known ; and secondly, they must be such as by the president should be accounted satisfactory.

But as the British minister declined to offer, or even to mention, the redress of which he was the bearer, till the American proclamation was recalled, and the president deeming its recall inexpedient, the controversy, for the present, closed.

The controversy respecting the Chesapeake was finally adjusted in November, 1811, at which time the British minister communicated to the secretary of state, that the attack on the Chesapeake was unauthorized by his majesty's government—that the officer at that time in command on the American coast had been recalled—that the men taken from the Chesapeake should be restored—and that suitable pecuniary provision should be made for those who suffered in the attack, and for the families of the seamen that fell. To these propositions the president acceded.

XXI. The difficulties with France and England, regarding commerce, still continuing, and the existing embargo having failed to coerce these powers as was anticipated, into an acknowledgment of our rights—a more

complete stop to our intercourse with them was deemed advisable by congress. Accordingly, on the 1st of March, congress interdicted, by law, all trade and intercourse with France and England.

XXII. Mr. Jefferson's second term of office expired on the 3d of March. Having previously declined a re-election, James Madison was chosen president, and George Clinton vice-president.

Notes.

XXIII. **Manners.** The bitterness of party spirit, which had now raged in the United States for some years, began to have a visible effect upon society. It interrupted to no small extent, the general harmony, and even restrained the intercourse of friends and neighbourhoods. The strife for power, also introduced a disposition to intrigue; political cunning became fashionable, and political duplicity lost much of its deformity. These things necessarily affected the state of manners. They withdrew the finger of derision, which used to point at meanness of all kinds, and blunted that love of honour, and manliness of conduct which existed before. Cunning began to take the place of wisdom; professions answered instead of deeds; and duplicity stalked forth with the boldness of integrity.

XXIV. **Religion.** Powerful revivals of religion pervaded the country during this period, and tended strongly to prevent open infidelity, and to check the tide of pollution which was invisibly spread over the land.

XXV. **Trade and Commerce.** Trade and commerce made great advances about the year 1808. The European powers being involved in war, and the United States remaining neutral, our vessels carried to Europe, not only the produce of our own country, but also the

produce of other countries. This is usually called the *carrying trade*, and was very profitable to the country.

In 1805, 6, and, 7, our average annual exports amounted to one hundred and two millions, five hundred and sixty-seven thousand, four hundred and fifty-four dollars, of which forty-four millions, eight hundred and sixty-three thousand, five hundred and seventeen dollars, were for domestick produce, and fifty-seven millions, seven hundred, and one thousand, nine hundred and thirty-seven dollars, for foreign produce. The annual average of imports during these three years, amounted to about one hundred and forty millions of dollars; a large proportion of the articles, forming this amount, were re-exported to the West Indies, South-America, and elsewhere.

After the year 1807, the commercial restrictions laid by France and England, began to curtail our trade, and the embargo imposed at the close of the same year by our own government, interrupted it more essentially.

XXVI. Agriculture. Agriculture, during a part of this period, received great encouragement from our foreign trade. Europe being involved in contentions, the people had little leisure there to cultivate the soil; they were therefore supplied from other countries, and the United States furnished them with a great amount, and were thence deriving great profits; when the commercial restrictions interrupted the trade.

The first *merino* sheep were introduced into the country, in 1802, by Robert R. Livingston, and the same year, a greater number, one hundred, by Gen. Humphreys, then late minister to Spain. Great attention was paid to the breeding of them, and they are now numerous in the United States.

XXVII. Arts and Manufactures. Arts and manufactures still progressed.

XXVIII. Population. The population of the United States, at the close of Mr. Jefferson's administration, was about seven millions.

XXIX. Education. The enlightened views respecting the importance of general information, entertained before, continued to prevail. New literary and scientific publications were commenced; more enlightened methods of instruction were adopted; academies were multiplied; colleges founded; and theological seminaries liberally endowed.

A theological seminary was founded at Andover, Massachusetts, in 1808. The amount which has been contributed for its permanent use, and which was given by six families, is more than three hundred thousand dollars. This sum includes the permanent fund, library, and publick buildings. In 1822, the officers were four professors, and the number of students, one hundred and thirty-two. The library contains about five thousand volumes. A majority of the students are supported in whole, or in part, by charity.

UNITED STATES.

period X.

**DISTINGUISHED FOR MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION, AND
THE LATE WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.**



James Madison.

*Extending from the inauguration of President Madison,
1809, to the inauguration of James Monroe, as presi-
dent of the United States, 1817.*

Section I. On the 4th of March, 1809, Mr. Madison was inducted into the office of president of the United States, according to the form prescribed by the constitution. The situation of the United States, on the accession of

Mr. Madison to the presidency, was in several respects gloomy and critical. The two great powers of Europe, France and England, were still at war, and were continuing to array against each other the most violent commercial edicts, both in contravention of the laws of nations, and of their solemn treaties; and calculated to injure and destroy the commerce of nations desirous of preserving a neutrality. America was also further suffering under the restrictions of commerce, imposed by her own government. Every effort to secure the due observance of her rights, by the contending powers, had hitherto failed, and the sad alternative was presenting itself to the American people, either to suffer the evils growing out of foreign and domestick restrictions, or to take up arms, and risk the consequence of a war with the belligerents.

II. Previously to the adjournment of the last congress, under Mr. Jefferson, an act passed, as already noticed, 1st of March, repealing the then existing embargo, and interdicting commercial intercourse with France and Great Britain. Should either of these powers, however, revoke their edicts, the president was authorized to renew the intercourse.

April 18th, the British minister, Mr. Erskine, informed the secretary of state, Mr. Smith, that his majesty's government, considering the nonintercourse act, passed March 1st, as having produced an *equality* in the relations of the two belligerent powers with respect to the United States, would be willing to rescind the orders in council of January and November, 1807, so far as it respected the United States, provided the president would issue a proclamation for the renewal of intercourse with Great Britain. This proposal was readily accepted. The British minister, in consequence of this acceptance, stated himself authorized to declare that the above orders in council would be withdrawn as it respected the United States, on the succeeding 10th of June. A proclamation by the president, soon after followed, renewing the intercourse with Great Britain, from and after that time.

This event produced the highest satisfaction throughout the country, but was speedily followed by a disappointment as great. The British government denied the authority of Mr. Erskine, to enter into any such stipulations, and refused its ratification. On learning this refusal, the president issued his proclamation, August 10th, renewing the nonintercourse with Great Britain.

III. Early in September, Mr. Jackson arrived at Washington, as successor of Mr. Erskine. A correspondence was soon commenced between this minister and the secretary of state, which after continuing several weeks, without adjusting any differences between the two countries, was suddenly closed by the president, on account of an alleged insult on the part of Mr. Jackson.

In the course of correspondence with the secretary, Mr. Jackson had repeatedly asserted that the American executive could not but know, from the powers exhibited by Mr. Erskine, that in the above stipulations he had transcended those powers, and was therefore acting without the authority of his government. This was deemed by the executive equivalent to a declaration, that the American government did know that Mr. Erskine was exceeding his powers. The British minister denied the legitimacy of such an inference—but the executive, regarding his language as reflecting upon the honour and integrity of the American government, closed the correspondence—soon after which, Mr. Jackson was recalled, but without the censure of his government.

IV. 1810. On the 23d of March, Bonaparte issued a decree, usually called the "Rambouillet decree," designed to retaliate the act of congress, passed March 1st, 1809, which forbade French vessels entering the ports of the United States. By the above decree, all American vessels and cargoes, arriving in any of the ports of France, or of countries occupied by French troops, were ordered to be seized, and condemned.

V. On the 1st of May, congress passed an act, excluding British and French armed vessels from the waters of the United States; but at the same time providing, that in case either of the above nations should modify its edicts before the third of March, 1811, so that they should cease

to violate neutral commerce, of which fact the president was to give notice by proclamation, and the other nation should not, within three months after, pursue a similar step, commercial intercourse with the former might be renewed, but not with the latter.

VI. In consequence of this act of the American government, the French minister, the Duke of Cadore, at Paris, informed the American minister, Mr. Armstrong, then in France, that the Berlin and Milan decrees were revoked, and that, from and after the 1st of November, they would cease to have effect. But, at the same, it was subjoined, that it was "understood, that, in consequence of this declaration, the English shall revoke their orders in council, &c." About the same time it was announced that the Rambouillet decree had also been rescinded.

Although the condition subjoined to the Duke of Cadore's declaration rendered it doubtful whether the Berlin and Milan decrees would in *fact* cease to take effect after the 1st. of November, the president issued his proclamation on the 2d of that month, declaring that those decrees were revoked, and that intercourse between the United States and France might be renewed.

VII. While the affairs of America, in relation to the belligerents, were in this posture, an unhappy engagement took place, May, 1811, between the American frigate *President*, commanded by Capt. Rogers, and a British sloop of war, the *Little Belt*, commanded by Capt. Bingham. The attack was commenced by the latter vessel, without provocation, and, in the rencontre, suffered greatly in her men and rigging.

A court of inquiry was ordered on the conduct of Captain Rogers, which decided that it had been satisfactorily proved to the court, that Capt. Rodgers hailed the *Little Belt* first—that his hail was not satisfactorily answered—that the *Little Belt* fired the first gun—and that it was without previous provocation or justifiable cause, &c. &c.

VIII. Congress was assembled by proclamation on the 5th of November. In his message at the opening of the session, the president indicated the expectation of hostilities

Great Britain at no distant period, since her orders council, instead of being withdrawn, were, when least have been expected, put in rigorous execution.

I must now add," continues the president in his message, at the period has arrived which claims from the legislative "dians of the national rights, a system of more ample provision for maintaining them."—"With" such full "evidence of hostile inflexibility" of Great Britain, "in trampling on rights which no independent nation can relinquish, congress feel the duty of putting the United States into an armour and attitude demanded by the crisis, and corresponding with national spirit and expectations."

On the 29th, the committee on foreign relations presented their report, in which, adopting the language of the president's message, they strongly recommended, "That the United States be immediately put into an armour and attitude demanded by the crisis, and corresponding with national spirit and expectations." Bills agreeable to the recommendation passed congress preparatory to a state of hostilities, among which was one for raising twenty-five thousand men.

IX. In December, the president communicated to congress an official account of the battle of "*Tippacano*" near a branch of the Wabash—fought November 7th, between an army under Gen. Harrison, governor of the Indiana territory, and a large body of Indians, in which the latter were defeated.

The attack was commenced by the Indians about four o'clock in the morning, while the army of Harrison were in a measure unprepared. But notwithstanding this disadvantage, after a hard fought action, the Indians were repulsed with a loss of nearly seventy killed, and upwards of a hundred wounded. The loss of the Americans was severe, being, according to official return, one hundred and eighty-eight killed and wounded.

X. During the following year, 1812, LOUISIANA was admitted into the union as a sovereign state.

Until the year 1811, Louisiana comprehended that vast tract of country which was ceded to the United States by France, in 1803. At that time, however, the *Territory of Orleans*, which then a distinct territorial government, assumed the name Louisiana, and was admitted the following year as a state

into the Union ; since which time the remaining portion of original Louisiana has received distinct denominations.

Louisiana was first discovered in 1541, by Ferdinand de Soto. In 1683, Monsieur de la Salle, an enterprising Frenchman, sailed up the Mississippi a considerable distance, and named the country Louisiana, in honour of Louis XIV. A French settlement was begun in 1699, by M. d'Ibberville, in Lower Louisianz, near the mouth of the river Perdido. The progress of the colony was slow. In 1712, although twenty-five hundred emigrants had arrived, only four hundred whites and twenty negroes were alive.

About this time, the French government made a grant of the country to M. de Crozat for a term of ten years ; but after five years he relinquished his patent to the Mississippi company. In the same year, 1717, the city of Orleans was founded.

By the treaty of 1763, all Louisiana east of the Mississippi, was ceded to England, together with Mobile, and all the possessions of France in that quarter. About the same time, the possessions of France west of the Mississippi were secretly ceded to Spain. After the cession to Great Britain, that part of the territory which lay west of the Mississippi, received the name of West Florida. On the breaking out of the revolutionary war, Spain, after considerable hesitation, took part with the United States, incited, probably by the hope of regaining her possessions east of the Mississippi. In 1779, Galvay, the governor of Louisiana, took possession of Baton Rouge ; and the other settlements of the English in Florida surrendered successively.

By the treaty of 1783, the Mississippi was made the western boundary of the United States from its source to the 31st degree of latitude, and following this line to the St. Mary's. By a treaty of the same date, the Floridas were ceded to Spain without any specifick boundaries. This omission led to a controversy between the United States and Spain, which nearly terminated in hostilities. By a treaty with Spain, however, in 1795, boundary lines were amicably settled, and New-Orleans was granted to American citizens as a place of deposit for their effects for three years and longer, unless some other place of equal importance should be assigned. No other place being assigned within that time, New-Orleans continued to be used as before.

In 1800, a secret treaty was signed at Paris, by the plenipotentiaries of France and Spain, by which Louisiana was guaranteed to France, and, in 1801, the cession was actually made. At the same time, the Spanish intendant of Louisiana was instructed to make arrangements to deliver the country to

the French commissioners. In violation of the treaty of Spain with the United States, the intendant, by his proclamation of October, 1802, forbade American citizens any longer to deposit merchandize in the port of New-Orleans.

Upon receiving intelligence of this prohibition, great sensibility prevailed in congress, and a proposition was made to occupy the place by force; but after an animated discussion the project was relinquished, and negotiations with France were commenced by Mr. Jefferson, for the purchase of the whole country of Louisiana, which ended in an agreement to that effect, signed at Paris, April 30th, 1803, by which the United States were to pay to France fifteen millions of dollars.

Early in December, 1803, the commissioners of Spain delivered possession to France; and on the 20th of the same month, the authorities of France duly transferred the country to the United States. Congress had provided for this event, and under their act, William C. C. Claiborne was appointed governor. By an act of March, 1804, that part of the ceded country which lay south of the parallel of thirty-three degrees was separated from the rest, and called the *Territory of Orleans*. In 1811, this district was erected into a state, and in 1812, was admitted into the Union by the name of *Louisiana*.

XI. On the third of April, 1812, congress passed an act laying an *embargo* for ninety days on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States, agreeably to a recommendation of the president. This measure, it was understood was preparatory to a war with Great Britain, which the executive would soon urge upon congress to declare.

XII. On the 4th of June, 1812, a bill declaring war against Great Britain, passed the house of representatives, by a majority of seventy-nine to forty-nine. After a discussion of this bill in the senate till the 17th, it passed that body also by a majority of nineteen to thirteen, and the succeeding day, 18th,* received the signature of the president.

* The following are the orders in council, French decrees, and the consequent acts of the American government, with their respective dates, presented in one view.

1806, May 16th, British blockade from the Elbe to Brest.

The principal grounds of war, as set forth in a message of the president to congress, June 1st, and as farther explained by the committee on foreign relations in their report on the subject of the message, were summarily—The impressment of American seamen by the British; the blockade of her enemies' ports, supported by no adequate force, in consequence of which, the American commerce had been plundered in every sea, and the great staples of the country cut off from their legitimate markets, and the British orders in council.

On these grounds, the president urged the declaration of war. In unison with the recommendation of the president, the committee on foreign relations concluded their report as follows :

"Your committee, believing that the freeborn sons of America are worthy to enjoy the liberty which their fathers purchased at the price of much blood and treasure, and seeing by the measures adopted by Great Britain, a course commenced and persisted in, which might lead to a loss of national character and independence, feel no hesitation in advising resistance by force, in which the Americans of the present day will prove to the enemy, and the world, that we have not only inherited that liberty which our fathers gave us, but also the will and power to

" Nov. 21st, Berlin decree.

1807, Jan. 6th, British order in council prohibiting the coasting trade.

" Nov. 11th, The celebrated British orders in council.

" Dec. 17th, Milan decree.

" Dec. 22d, American embargo.

1809, March 1st, Non-intercourse with Great Britain and France, established by congress.

" April 10th, Mr. Erskine's negotiation, which opened the trade with England.

" June 19th, Non-intercourse with Great Britain

1810, March 18th, Rambouillet decree.

" May 1st, Act of congress conditionally opening the trade with England and France.

" Nov. 2d, President's proclamation declaring the French decrees to be rescinded.

1812, April 4th, American embargo.

" June 18th, Declaration of war by the United States against Great Britain.

maintain it. Relying on the patriotism of the nation, and confidently trusting that the Lord of hosts will go with us to battle in a righteous cause, and crown our efforts with success—your committee recommend an immediate appeal to arms."

Against this declaration of war, the minority in the house of representatives, among which were found the principal part of the delegation from New-England, in an address to their constituents, solemnly protested, on the ground that the wrongs of which the United States complained, although in some respects grievous, were not of a nature, in the present state of the world, to justify war, or such as war would be likely to remedy.

On the subject of impressment, they urged that the question between the two countries had once been honourably and satisfactorily settled, in the treaty negotiated with the British court by Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney, and although that treaty had not been ratified by Mr. Jefferson, the arrangements might probably again be made. In relation to the second cause of war—the blockade of her enemies' ports without an adequate force—the minority replied that this was not designed to injure the commerce of the United States, but was retaliatory upon France, which had taken the lead in aggressions upon neutral rights. In addition, it was said, that as the repeal of the French decrees had been officially announced, it was to be expected that a revocation of the orders in council would soon follow.

In conclusion of the protest, the minority spoke as follows :

"The undersigned cannot refrain from asking what are the United States to gain by this war? Will the gratification of some privateersmen compensate the nation for that sweep of our legitimate commerce by the extended *marine of our enemy*, which this desperate act invites? Will Canada compensate the middle States for New-York; or the western States for New-Orleans? Let us not be deceived. A war of invasion may invite a retort of invasion. When we visit the peaceable, and to us innocent colonies of Great Britain with the horrors of war, can we be assured that our own coast will not be visited with like horrors.

"At a crisis of the world, such as the present, and under impressions such as these, the undersigned could not consider the war into which the United States have in secret been precipitated, as necessary, or required by any moral duty, or any political expediency."

As a difference of views respecting the war, which had now been declared, prevailed in congress, so the country generally was divided into two opposite parties respecting it. The friends of the administration universally commending, and its opposers as extensively censuring and condemning the measure. By the

former, the war was strenuously urged to be unavoidable and just; by the latter, with equal decision, it was pronounced to be impolitick, unnecessary, and unjust.

XIII. The military establishments of the United States, upon the declaration of war, were extremely defective. Acts of congress permitted the enlistment of twenty-five thousand men, but few enlisted. The president was authorized to raise fifty thousand volunteers, and to call out one hundred thousand militia, for the purpose of defending the sea coast and the frontiers. But the want of proper officers was now felt, as the ablest revolutionary heroes had paid the debt of nature. Such was the situation of things at the commencement of hostilities.

XIV. August 16th, Gen. Hull, governour of Michigan, who had been sent at the head of about two thousand five hundred men to Detroit, with a view of putting an end to Indian hostilities in that country, surrendered his army to Gen. Brock, without a battle, and with it the fort at Detroit.

The sensations produced by this occurrence throughout the United States, and particularly in the western country, can scarcely be described. So entirely unprepared was the public mind for this extraordinary event, that no one could believe it to have taken place until communicated from an official source.

In his official despatch, Hull took great pains to free his conduct from censure. Among the reasons for his surrender, and those which determined him to that course, he assigned the want of provision to sustain the siege, the expected reinforcements of the enemy, and the savage ferocity of the Indians, should he ultimately be obliged to capitulate.

The government, however, not being satisfied with his excuses, ordered a court martial, before which he was charged with treason, cowardice, and unofficerlike conduct. On the first charge the court declined giving an opinion: on the two last he was sentenced to death; but was recommended to mercy in consequence of his revolutionary services, and his advanced age. The sentence was remitted by the president;—but his name was ordered to be struck from the rolls of the army.

XV. About the middle of August, that series of splen-

did naval achievements, for which this war was distinguished, was commenced by Capt. Isaac Hull, of the United States' frigate *Constitution*, who captured the British frigate *Guerriere*, commanded by Capt. Dacres.

The American frigate was superiour in force only by a few guns, but the difference bore no comparison to the disparity of the conflict. The loss of the *Constitution* was seven killed, and seven wounded, while that on board the *Guerriere* was fifteen killed, and sixty-three wounded, among the latter was Capt. Dacres. The *Constitution* sustained so little injury that she was ready for action the succeeding day. But the British frigate was so much damaged that she was set on fire and burnt.

XVI. Upon the declaration of war, the attention of the American general was turned towards the invasion of Canada, for which eight or ten thousand men, and considerable military stores were collected at different points along the Canada line. Skilful officers of the navy were also despatched for the purpose of arming vessels on Lake Erie, Ontario, and Champlain, if possible to gain the ascendancy there, and to aid the operations of the American forces.

The American troops were distributed into three divisions—one under Gen. Harrison, called the *North Western* army; a second under Gen. Stephen Van Rensselaer, at *Lowistown*, called the army of the *Centre*; and a third under the commander in chief, Gen. Dearborn, in the neighbourhood of *Plattsburg* and *Greenbush*, called the army of the *North*.

XVII. Early on the morning of the 13th of October, 1812, a detachment of about one thousand men, from the army of the *Centre*, crossed the river *Niagara*, and attacked the British on *Queenstown* heights. This detachment, under the command of Col. Solomon Van Rensselaer, succeeded in dislodging the enemy—but not being reinforced by the militia from the American side, as was expected, they were ultimately repulsed, and were obliged to surrender. The British Gen. Brock was killed during the engagement.

The forces designated to storm the heights, were divided into two columns: one of three hundred militia, under Col. Van

Rensselaer, the other of three hundred regulars, under Col. Christie. These were to be followed by Col. Fenwick's artillery, and then the other troops in order.

Much embarrassment was experienced by the boats from the eddies, as well as by the shot of the enemy, in crossing the river. Col. Van Rensselaer led the van, and landed first with one hundred men. Scarcely had he leaped from the boat, when he received four severe wounds. Being, however, able to stand, he ordered his officers to move with rapidity and storm the fort. This service was gallantly performed, and the enemy were driven down the hill in every direction.

Both parties were now reinforced—the Americans by regulars and militia—the British by the forty-ninth regiment, consisting of six hundred regulars, under Gen. Brock. Upon this the conflict was renewed, in which Gen. Brock, and his aid, Captain M'Donald, fell almost in the same moment. After a desperate engagement, the enemy were repulsed, and the victory was thought complete.

Gen. Van Rensselaer now crossed over, for the purpose of fortifying the heights, preparatory to another attack, should the repulsed enemy be reinforced. This duty he assigned to Lieut. Totten, an able engineer.

But the fortune of the day was not yet decided. At three o'clock in the afternoon, the enemy, being reinforced by several hundred Chippewa Indians, rallied, and again advanced, but were a third time repulsed. At this moment Gen. Van Rensselaer, perceiving the militia on the opposite side embarking but slowly, hastily recrossed the river, to accelerate their movements. But what was his chagrin, on reaching the American side, to hear more than twelve hundred of the militia positively refuse to embark. The sight of the engagement had cooled that ardour which, previously to the attack, the commander in chief could scarcely restrain. While their countrymen were nobly struggling for victory, they could remain idle spectators of the scene. All that a brave, resolute, and benevolent commander could do, Gen. Van Rensselaer did—he urged, entreated, commanded, but it was all in vain. Eight hundred British soldiers, from Fort George, now hove in sight, and pressed on to renew the attack. The Americans, for a time, continued to struggle against this force, but were finally obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

The number of American troops killed, amounted to about sixty, and about one hundred were wounded. Those that surrendered themselves prisoners of war, including the wounded, were about seven hundred. The loss of the British is unknown, but it must have been severe.

Although the issue of this battle was unfortunate, seldom has American valour shone more conspicuously, or a victory been relinquished with more reluctance. Had but a small part of the "idle men" passed over at the critical moment, when urged by their brave commander, revolutionary history can tell of few nobler achievements than this would have been.

XVIII. On the 17th of October, another naval victory was achieved over an enemy decidedly superiour in force, and under circumstances the most favourable to him. This was the Capture of the brig Frolick, of twenty-two guns, by the sloop of war Wasp.

Captain Jones had returned from France two weeks after the declaration of war, and on the 13th of October, again put to sea. On the 17th he fell in with six merchant ships, under convoy of a brig, and two ships armed with sixteen guns each. The brig, which proved to be the Frolick, Capt. Whinyates, dropped behind, while the others made sail. At half past eleven, the action began by the enemy's cannon and musketry. In five minutes, the main-top-mast was shot away, and falling down, with the main-top-sail yard across the larboard fore and fore-top-sail, rendered her head yards unmanageable, during the rest of the action. In two minutes more, her gaff, and mizen top-gallant-mast were shot away. The sea being exceedingly rough, the muzzles of the Wasp's guns were sometimes under water.

The English fired as their vessel rose, so that their shot was either thrown away, or touched only the rigging of the Americans; the Wasp, on the contrary, fired as she sunk, and every time struck the hull of her antagonist. The fire of the Frolick was soon slackened, and Capt. Jones determined to board her. As the crew leaped on board the enemy's vessel, their surprise can scarcely be imagined, as they found no person on deck, except three officers and the seaman at the wheel. The deck was slippery with blood, and presented a scene of havock and ruin. The officers now threw down their swords in submission, and Lieut. Biddle, of the Wasp, leaped into the rigging, to haul down the colours, which were still flying. Thus, in forty-three minutes, ended one of the most bloody conflicts recorded in naval history. The loss, on board the Frolick, was thirty killed, and fifty wounded; on board the Wasp, five were killed, and five slightly wounded. The Wasp and Frolick were both captured the same day, by a British seventy-four, the Poitiers, Capt. Beresford.

XIX. The above splendid achievement of Capt. Jones was followed on the 25th of October by another not much

less splendid and decisive, by Commodore Decatur," of the frigate United States of forty-four guns, who captured the Macedonian off the Western Isles, a frigate of the largest class, mounting forty-nine guns, and manned with three hundred men.

In this action, which continued an hour and a half, the Macedonian lost thirty-six killed, and sixty-eight wounded: on board the United States, seven only were killed, and five wounded. The British frigate lost her main-mast, main-top-mast, and main-yard, and was injured in her hull. The United States suffered so little that a return to port was unnecessary.

An act of generosity and benevolence on the part of our brave tars, of this victorious frigate, deserves to be honourably recorded. The carpenter, who was unfortunately killed in the conflict with the Macedonian, had left three small children to the care of a worthless mother. When the circumstance became known to the brave seamen, they instantly made a contribution amongst themselves, to the amount of eight hundred dollars, and placed it in safe hands, to be appropriated to the education and maintenance of the unhappy orphans.

XX. December the 29th a second naval victory was achieved by the Constitution, then commanded by Com. Bainbridge, over the Java, a British frigate of thirty-eight guns, but carrying forty-nine, with four hundred men, commanded by Capt. Lambert, who was mortally wounded.

This action was fought off St. Salvador, and continued nearly two hours, when the Java struck, having lost sixty killed and one hundred and twenty wounded. The Constitution had nine men killed and twenty-five wounded. On the 1st of January, the commander, finding his prize incapable of being brought in, was obliged to burn her.

XXI. Thus ended the year 1812. With the exception of the naval victories already mentioned, and some others of the same kind, equally honourable to America, nothing important was achieved. Neither of the armies destined for the invasion of Canada had obtained any decisive advantage, or were in possession of any post in that territory. Further preparations, however, were making for its conquest. Naval armaments were collecting on the lakes; and the soldiers, in their winter quarters,

were looking forward to "battles fought and victories won."

XXII. 1813. January 22d, a bloody action was fought at the river Raisin, between a detachment from the north-western army, exceeding seven hundred and fifty men, under Gen. Winchester, and a combined force of British and Indians, amounting to one thousand five hundred men, under Gen. Proctor. Many of the Americans were killed and wounded. Among the former was Gen. Winchester. The remainder, on surrendering themselves prisoners of war, were nearly all inhumanly massacred by the Indians, contrary to the express stipulations of Gen. Proctor.

The station of General Harison, the commander of the north-western army, was at this time at Franklinton. General Winchester was stationed at Fort Defiance, half way between Fort Wayne on the Miami, and Lake Erie, with eight hundred troops, chiefly young men, of the first respectability, from Kentucky. Learning that a body of British and Indians was about to concentrate at Frenchtown, on the river Raisin, he sent a detachment to protect that place. Before the arrival of the detachment, Frenchtown was occupied by a party of the enemy, but they were dislodged after a severe engagement, in which the Americans had twelve killed, and fifty-five wounded.

On the 20th, General Winchester joined the detachment at Frenchtown, with the remainder of his troops, and, on the 22d, the battle of Raisin was fought. After a desperate conflict, in which many on both sides were killed, the Americans surrendered, with the express stipulation of being protected from the Indians.

Contrary, however, to these stipulations, the savages were permitted to indulge their full thirst for blood. The tomahawk was mercilessly buried in many a bosom, and the scalping knife wantonly tore the crown from many a head.

Even the last sad rites of sepulture were forbidden, by their murderers, and the remains of these brave youth of Kentucky lay on the ground, beat by the storms of Heaven, and exposed to the beasts of the forest, until the ensuing autumn, when their friends and relations ventured to gather up their bleaching bones, and consigned to the tomb.

XXIII. During the winter, an engagement took place between the Hornet, Captain James Lawrence, and the British sloop of war Peacock, Captain William Peake, off

South America. This action lasted but fifteen minutes, when the Peacock struck.

On her surrendering, a signal of distress was discovered; on board the Peacock. She had been so much damaged, that, already, she had six feet of water in her hold, and was sinking fast. Boats were immediately despatched for the wounded, and every measure taken which was practicable, to keep her afloat until the crew could be removed. Her guns were thrown overboard, the shot holes were plugged, and a part of the Hornet's crew, at the imminent hazard of their lives, laboured incessantly to rescue the vanquished. The utmost efforts of these generous men were, however, in vain; the conquered vessel sunk in the midst of them, carrying down nine of her own crew, and three of the Americans. With a generosity becoming them, the crew of the Hornet divided their clothing with the prisoners, who were left destitute by the sinking ship. In the action the Hornet received but a slight injury. The killed and wounded on board the Peacock were supposed to exceed fifty.

XXIV. On the fourth of March, 1813, Mr. Madison entered upon his second term of office, as president of the United States; having been re-elected by a considerable majority, though De Witt Clinton, of New-York, was supported by the federal electors. George Clinton was elected vice president: he died, however, soon after, and Elbridge Gerry succeeded him.

XXV. It having been communicated to the American government that the emperour of Russia was desirous of seeing an end put to the hostilities between Great Britain and America, and had offered to mediate between the two countries, Messrs. Albert Gallatin, James A. Bayard, and John Quincy Adams, were, early in the spring, 1813, appointed commissioners to Russia, to meet such commissioners as should be sent by the British court, and were empowered to negotiate a treaty of peace and commerce with Great Britain.

XXVI. During the winter, which had now passed, Great Britain sent a number of troops to Halifax, and made considerable preparations for the defence of Canada. Similar preparations had been urged by the American government, with the hope of completing the conquest of that territory, before the close of another campaign.

About the middle of April, the commander in chief, Gen. Dearborn, determined to attack York, the capital of Upper Canada, the great depository of British military stores, whence the western ports were supplied. Accordingly, on the 27th, a successful attack was made, and York fell into the hands of the Americans, with all its stores.

† The command of the troops, one thousand seven hundred, detached for this purpose, was given to Gen. Pike. On the 25th, the fleet, under Commodore Chauncey, moved down the lake, with the troops from Sackett's Harbour, and on the 27th, arrived at the place of debarkation, about two miles westward from York, and one and a half from the enemies' works. The British, consisting of about seven hundred and fifty regulars, and five hundred Indians, under General Sheaffe, attempted to oppose the landing, but were thrown into disorder, and fled to their garrison.

Gen. Pike, having formed his men, proceeded towards the enemies' fortifications. On their near approach to the barracks, about sixty rods from the garrison, an explosion of a magazine took place, previously prepared for the purpose, which killed about one hundred of the Americans, among whom was the gallant Pike.

Pike lived to direct his troops, for a moment thrown into disorder, "to move on." This they now did under Col. Pearce; and proceeding towards the town, took possession of the barracks. On approaching it, they were met by the officers of the Canada militia, with offers of capitulation. At four o'clock the troops entered the town.

The loss of the British in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to seven hundred and fifty—the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, about three hundred.

XXVII. During the remainder of the spring, the war continued along the Canada line, and on some parts of the sea board; but nothing important was achieved by either power. The Chesapeake Bay was blockaded by the British, and predatory excursions, by their troops, were made at Havre De Grace, Georgetown, &c. Several villages were burnt, and much property plundered and destroyed.

† To the north of the Chesapeake, the coast was not exempt from the effects of the war. A strict blockade was

kept up at New-York. The American frigates United States and Macedonian, and the sloop Hornet, attempted to sail on a cruise from that port, about the beginning of May, but were prevented. In another attempt, they were chased into New-London harbour, where they were blockaded by a fleet under Commodore Hardy, for many months. Fort George, in Canada, was taken by the Americans. Sackett's Harbour was attacked by one thousand British, who were repelled with considerable loss.

XXVIII. On the first of June, the American navy experienced no inconsiderable loss, in the capture of the Chesapeake, by the British frigate Shannon, off Boston harbour—a loss the more severely felt, as on board of her fell several brave officers, among whom was her commander, the distinguished and lamented Capt. Lawrence.

Capt. Lawrence had been but recently promoted to the command of the Chesapeake. On his arrival at Boston to take charge of her, he was informed that a British frigate was lying off the harbour, apparently inviting an attack.—Prompted by the ardour which pervaded the service, he resolved to meet the enemy, without sufficiently examining his strength. With a crew, chiefly enlisted for the occasion, as that of the Chesapeake had mostly been discharged, on the first of June he sailed out of the harbour.

The Shannon observing the Chesapeake put to sea, immediately followed. At half past five, the two ships engaged. By the first broadside, the sailing master of the Chesapeake was killed, and Lieut. Ballard mortally wounded: Lieut. Brown and Capt. Lawrence were severely wounded at the same time. A second and third broadside, besides adding to the destruction of her officers, so disabled the Chesapeake in her rigging, that her quarter fell on the Shannon's anchor. This accident may be considered as deciding the contest; an opportunity was given the enemy to rake the Chesapeake, and, toward the close of the action, to board her. Capt. Lawrence, though severely wounded, still kept the deck. In the act of summoning the boarders, a musket ball entered his body, and brought him down. As he was carried below, he issued a last heroick order, "*Don't give up the ship;*" but it was too late to retrieve what was lost; the British boarders leaped into the vessel, and after a short, but bloody struggle, hoisted the British flag.

In this sanguinary conflict, twenty-three of the enemy were

killed, and fifty wounded; on board the Chesapeake about seventy were killed, and eighty-three wounded.

XXIX. The tide of fortune seemed now, for a short time, to turn in favour of Great Britain. On the 14th of August, the Argus, of eighteen guns, another of our national vessels, was captured by the Pelican of twenty guns.

The Argus had been employed to carry out Mr. Crawford, as minister, to France. After landing him, she proceeded to cruise in the British channel, and, for two months, greatly annoyed the British shipping. At length that government was induced to send several vessels in pursuit of her. On the 14th August, the Pelican, a sloop of war of superior force, discovered her, and bore down to action. At the first broadside Capt. Allen fell, severely wounded, but remained on deck for some time, when it was necessary to carry him below. After a hard fought action, the Argus was obliged to surrender, with a loss of six killed and seventeen wounded. On board the Pelican there were but three killed and five wounded. Capt. Allen died soon after, in England, and was interred with the honours of war.

XXX. After the loss of the Chesapeake and Argus, victory again returned to the side of America. On the 5th of September following, the British brig Boxer surrendered to the Enterprize, after an engagement of little more than half an hour.

The Enterprize sailed from Portsmouth on the 1st, and was on the 5th descried by the Boxer, which *immediately* gave chase. After the action had continued for fifteen minutes, the Enterprize ranged ahead, and raked her enemy so powerfully, that in twenty minutes the firing ceased, and the cry of quarter was heard. The Enterprize had one killed and thirteen wounded; but that one was her lamented commander, Lieutenant Burrows. He fell at the commencement of the action, but continued to cheer his crew, averring that the flag should never be struck. When the sword of the enemy was presented to him, he exclaimed, "I die contented." The British loss was more considerable. Among their killed was Captain Blythe. These two commanders, both in the morning of life, were interred beside each other at Portland, with military honours.

XXXI. During these occurrences on the sea board, important preparations had been made for decisive measures to the westward, and the general attention was now turned, with great anxiety to the movements of the north.

western army, and the fleet under command of Commodore Perry, on Lake Erie.

This anxiety, not long after, was, in a measure, dispelled by a decisive victory of the American fleet, over that of the British, on Lake Erie, achieved, after a long and desperate conflict, on the 10th of September.

The American squadron consisted of nine vessels, carrying fifty-four guns, that of the British, of six vessels and sixty-three guns. The line of battle was formed at eleven, and at a quarter before twelve, the enemy's flag ship, Queen Charlotte, opened a tremendous fire upon the Lawrence, the flag ship of Commodore Perry, which was sustained by the latter, ten minutes before she could bring her carronades to bear. At length she bore up and engaged the enemy, making signals to the remainder of the squadron to hasten to her support. Unfortunately the wind was too light to admit of a compliance with the order, and she was compelled to contend, for two hours, with two ships of equal force. By this time the brig had become unmanageable, and her crew, excepting four or five, were either killed or wounded.

While thus surrounded with death,—and destruction still pouring in upon him, Perry left the brig, now only a wreck, in an open boat, and heroically waving his sword, passed unhurt to the Niagara, of twenty guns. The wind now rose. Ordering every canvass to be spread, he bore down upon the enemy:—passing the enemy's vessels, Detroit, Queen Charlotte, and Lady Prevost, on the one side, and the Chippewa, and Little Belt, on the other, into each of which, he poured a broadside—he at length engaged the Lady Prevost, which received so heavy a fire as to compel her men to retire below.

The remainder of the American squadron, now, one after another, arrived, and following the example of their intrepid leader, closed in with the enemy, and the battle became general.

Three hours finished the contest, and enabled Perry to announce to Gen. Harrison the capture of the whole squadron, which he did, in this modest, laconick, and emphatick style: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

The loss in the contest was great in proportion to the numbers engaged. The Americans had twenty-seven killed and ninety-six wounded. But the British loss was still greater, being about two hundred in killed and wounded. The prisoners amounted to six hundred, exceeding the whole number of Americans engaged in the action.

XXXII. The Americans were now masters of Lake

Erie, but Detroit and Malden were in possession of the British General Proctor. Against these, Gen. Harrison, commander of the north-western army, now resolved to direct his forces.

Col. Johnson, with a body of Kentuckians, was despatched against Detroit. Gen. Harrison with his troops repaired on board the fleet, and the same day reached Malden. The British general, however, destroyed Malden, and retired with his forces.

Finding Malden destroyed, Harrison next determined to proceed in pursuit of Proctor. On the 2d of October, with about two thousand five hundred men, selected for the purpose, he commenced a rapid march, and, on the 5th, reached the place where the enemy had encamped the night before. Col. Johnson, who had joined Gen. Harrison, was sent forward to reconnoitre the enemy, and soon returned with the information that they had made a stand a few miles distant, and were ready for action.

The American troops were now formed in order of battle. The armies engaged, and, for a time, the strife raged with fury. Providence, however, gave to the Americans a decisive victory, and Detroit fell into their hands.

In this engagement, the loss of the British was nineteen regulars killed, fifty wounded, and about six hundred prisoners. The Indians left one hundred and twenty on the field. The loss of the Americans did not exceed fifty.

In this battle were engaged one thousand two hundred or one thousand five hundred Indians, led on by Tecumseh, a savage warrior, than whom the annals of history can scarcely boast a greater. Since the defeat of Harmer he had been in almost every engagement with the whites. On the opening of the late war, he visited various tribes, and, by his eloquence and influence, roused his countrymen to arms against the United States.

XXXIII. The fall of Detroit put an end to the Indian war in that quarter, and gave security to the frontiers. Gen. Harrison now dismissed a greater part of his volunteers, and having stationed Gen. Cass at Detroit, with about one thousand men, proceeded, according to his instructions, with the remainder of his forces, to Buffalo, to join the army of the centre.

XXXIV. The result of the operations of the north-west, and the victory on Lake Erie, prepared the way to attempt a more effectual invasion of Canada.

Gen. Wilkinson was now commanding the American forces in the north, Gen. Dearborn having some time before retired on account of indisposition. The force destined for the contemplated invasion of Canada, amounted to twelve thousand men,—eight thousand of whom were stationed at Niagara, and four thousand at Plattsburg, under the command of Gen. Hampton.—In addition to these forces, those under Gen. Harrison were expected to arrive in season to furnish important assistance.

The outline of the plan which had been adopted, was to descend the St. Lawrence, passing the British forts above, and, after a junction with Gen. Hampton, at some designated point on the river, to proceed to the Island of Montreal. Unexpected difficulties, however, occurred, which prevented the execution of this plan, and the American forces retired into winter quarters at St. Regis.

Gen. Wilkinson concentrated his forces at Grenadiers' Island, between Sackett's Harbour and Kingston, one hundred and eighty miles from Montreal, by the way of the river. This place the army left, on the 25th of October, on board the fleet, and descended the St. Lawrence, sanguine in the expectation of subduing Montreal.

On the arrival of the flotilla at Williamsburg, November 9th, one thousand five hundred men, of Gen. Boyd's brigade, were landed with a view to cover the boats in their passage through the rapids. On the 11th an engagement took place, which continued two hours, between this detachment of the American army and a detachment of the British under Lieut. Col. Morrison.—Both parties claimed the victory, but it was, properly, a drawn battle, the British retiring to their encampments, and the Americans to their boats. The loss of the British is not ascertained, that of the Americans, in killed and wounded, was three hundred and thirty-nine. Among the latter was Gen. Carrington, who died of his wounds.

A few days previous to this battle, as Gen. Harrison had not arrived, Gen. Wilkinson despatched orders to Gen. Hampton to meet him at St. Regis. To these orders, Gen. Hampton replied, that it was impracticable to comply with them. On the receipt of this communication, a council of officers was called.

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which advised to abandon the project and to retire. Accordingly, Gen. Wilkinson ordered a retreat, and selected French Mills, as the winter quarters of his army. The troops of Gen. Hampton soon followed this example.

Thus ended a campaign which gave rise to dissatisfaction, proportioned to the high expectations that had been indulged of its success. Publick opinion was much divided as to the causes of its failure, and as to the parties to whom the blame was properly to be attached.

XXXV. The proposal of the emperor of Russia to mediate between the United States and Great Britain, with reference to an amicable adjustment of their differences, and the appointment of Messrs. Gallatin, Adams, and Bayard, as commissioners under that proposal, have been mentioned. This proposal, however, Great Britain thought expedient to decline; but the prince regent offered a direct negotiation, either at London or Gottenburg.

The offer was no sooner communicated to our government, than accepted, and Messrs. Henry Clay, Jonathan Russel, and Albert Gallatin, were appointed in addition to the commissioners already in Europe, and soon after sailed for Gottenburg. Lord Gambier, Henry Goulbourn, and William Adams, were appointed on the part of the court of St. James, to meet them. The place of their meeting was first fixed at Gottenburg, but subsequently was changed to Ghent, in Flanders, where the commissioners assembled in August.

XXXVI. The spring of 1814 was distinguished for the loss of the American frigate Essex, Commodore David Porter, which was captured on the 28th of March, in the bay of Valparaiso, South America, by a superiour British force.

XXXVII. Towards the close of April, after an action of forty-two minutes, the British brig Epervier surrendered to the Peacock. Fort Erie was taken from the British, early in July, and during the same month, sanguinary battles were fought at Chippewa and Bridgewater.

In the battle of Bridgewater, or Niagara, Generals Brown and Scott commanded the Americans; Generals Drummond and Riall the British. The battle lasted from four o'clock, P.

M. till midnight. The British loss was nine hundred in killed, wounded, and prisoners, the loss of the Americans did not exceed one hundred. The former were obliged to retire.

XXXVIII. While these events were transpiring in the north, the publick attention was irresistibly drawn to the movements of the enemy on the sea-board. About the middle of August, between fifty and sixty sail of the British arrived in the Chesapeake, with troops destined for the attack of Washington, the capital of the United States. On the 23d of August, six thousand British troops, commanded by Gen. Ross, forced their way to that place, burnt the capitol, president's house, and executive offices.

Having thus accomplished an object highly disgraceful to the British arms, and wantonly burned publick buildings, the ornament and pride of the nation, the destruction of which could not hasten the termination of the war—on the 25th they retired, and, by rapid marches, regained their shipping, having lost, during the expedition, nearly one thousand men.

The troops, under Gen. Ross, were landed at Benedict, on the Pawtuxet, forty-seven miles from Washington. On the 21st, they moved toward Nottingham, and, the following day, reached Marlborough. A British flotilla, commanded by Cockburn, consisting of launches and barges, ascended the river at the same time, keeping on the right flank of the army. The day following, on approaching the American flotilla of Com. Barney, which had taken refuge high up the river, twelve miles from Washington, some sailors left on board the flotilla for the purpose, should it be necessary, set fire to it, and fled.

On the arrival of the British army at Bladensburg, six miles from Washington, Gen. Winder, commander of the American forces, chiefly militia collected for the occasion, ordered them to engage the enemy. The principal part of the militia, however, fled, at the opening of the contest. Commodore Barney with a few eighteen pounders, and about four hundred men, made a gallant resistance; but being overpowered by numbers, and himself wounded, he and a part of his brave band were compelled to surrender themselves prisoners of war.

From Bladensburg, Gen. Ross urged his march to Washington, where he arrived at about 8 o'clock in the evening. Having stationed his main body at the distance of a mile and a half from the capitol, he entered the city, at the head of about seven hundred men, soon after which, he issued his orders for the con-

flagration of the publick buildings. With the capitol were consumed its valuable libraries, and all the furniture; and articles of taste and value in that and in the other buildings. The great bridge across the Potomack was burnt, together with an elegant hotel, and other private buildings.

XXXIX. The capture of Washington was followed, September 12th, by an attack on Baltimore, in which the American forces, militia, and inhabitants of Baltimore, made a gallant defence. Being, however, overpowered by a superiour force, they were compelled to retreat; but they fought so valiantly, that the attempt to gain possession of the city was abandoned by the enemy, who, during the night of Tuesday, 13th, retired to their shipping, *having* lost among their killed, Gen. Ross, the commander in chief of the British troops.

The British army, after the capture of Washington, having re-embarked on board the fleet in the *Pawtuxent*, Admiral Cochrane moved down that river, and proceeded up the Chesapeake. On the morning of the 11th of September, he appeared at the mouth of the Patapsco, fourteen miles from Baltimore, with a fleet of ships of war and transports, amounting to fifty sail.

On the next day, 12th, land forces, to the number of six thousand, were landed at North Point, and, under the command of Gen. Ross, commenced their march towards the city. In anticipation of the landing of the troops, Gen. Stricker was despatched with three thousand two hundred men from Baltimore, to keep the enemy in check.

On the 12th, a battle was fought by the two armies. Early in the engagement, a considerable part of Gen. Stricker's troops retreated in confusion, leaving him scarcely one thousand four hundred men, to whom was opposed the whole body of the enemy. An incessant fire was continued from half past two o'clock, till a little before four, when Gen. Stricker, *finding* the contest unequal, and that the enemy outflanked him, retreated upon his reserve, which was effected in good order.

The loss of the Americans, in killed and wounded, amounted to one hundred and sixty-three, among whom were some of the most respectable citizens of Baltimore.

The enemy made his appearance, the next morning, in front of the American entrenchments, at a distance of two miles from the city, showing an intention of renewing the attack.

In the meantime, an attack was made on fort M'Henry, from frigates, bombs, and rocket vessels, which continued through

the day, and the greater part of the night, doing, however, but little damage.

In the course of the night of Tuesday, Admiral Cochrane held a communication with the commander of the land forces, and the enterprise of taking the city being deemed impracticable, the troops were re-embarked, and the next day the fleet descended the bay, to the great joy of the released inhabitants.

XL. During these troubles in the south, the enemy were far from being inactive in other parts of the United States. August 14th, Fort Erie was attacked by the British, commanded by Lieut. Gen. Drummond; but, after a severe engagement, they were repulsed, with a loss of six hundred, in killed, and wounded, and prisoners. The American loss was two hundred and forty-five.

September 1st, the British took possession of Castine, in Maine, as some time before they had taken Eastport, a town situated on one of the islands of the bay of Passamaquoddy. About this time, also, the seaports along the shores of New-England being seriously threatened, the militia were called out by the authorities of the States bordering on the sound, to repel the expected foe.

XLI. The joy experienced in all parts of the United States on account of the brave defence of Baltimore, had scarcely subsided, when intelligence was received of the signal success of the Americans at Plattsburg, and on Lake Champlain. The army of Sir George Prevost, amounting to fourteen thousand men, was compelled by General Macomb, to retire from the former, and the enemy's squadron, commanded by Commodore Downie, was captured by Commodore Macdonough on the latter.

Towards the close of the winter of 1814, General Wilkinson, with his army, removed from their winter quarters at St. Regis, and took station at Plattsburg. Gen. Wilkinson leaving the command of the army, Gen. Macomb succeeded him at this place. By September, the troops at Plattsburg were diminished by detachments, withdrawn to other stations, to one thousand five hundred men.

In this state of the forces, it was announced that Sir George Prevost, governor-general of Canada, with an army of fourteen thousand men, completely equipped, and accompanied by

a numerous train of artillery, was about making a descent on Plattsburg.

At this time, both the Americans and British had a respectable naval force on lake Champlain; but that of the latter was considerably the superiour, amounting to ninety-five guns; and one thousand and fifty men, while the American squadron carried but eighty-six guns, and eight hundred and twenty-six men.

On the 11th of September, while the American fleet was lying off Plattsburg, the British squadron was observed bearing down upon it in order of battle.

Com. Macdonough, ordering his vessels cleared for action, gallantly received the enemy. An engagement ensued, which lasted two hours and twenty minutes. By this time, the enemy was silenced, and one frigate, one brig, and two sloops of war fell into the hands of the Americans. Several British galleys were sunk and a few others escaped. The loss of the Americans was fifty-two killed, and fifty-eight wounded; of the British, eighty-four killed, and one hundred and ten wounded.

Previously to this eventful day, Sir George Prevost, with his army, arrived in the vicinity of Plattsburg. In anticipation of this event, Gen. Macomb made every preparation which time and means allowed, and called in to his assistance considerable numbers of the militia.

In the sight of these two armies, the rival squadrons commenced their contest. And, as if their engagement had been a preconcerted signal; and as if to raise still higher the solemn grandeur of the scene; Sir George Prevost now led up his forces against the American works, and began throwing upon them, shells, balls, and rockets.

At the same time, the Americans opened a severe and destructive fire from their forts. Before sunset, the temporary batteries of Sir George Prevost were all silenced, and every attempt of the enemy to cross from Plattsburg to the American works was repelled. At nine o'clock, perceiving the attainment of his object impracticable, the British general hastily drew off his forces, diminished by killed, wounded, and deserted, two thousand five hundred. At the same time he abandoned vast quantities of military stores, and left the inhabitants of Plattsburgh to take care of the sick and wounded of his army, and the "star-spangled banner" to wave in triumph, over the waters of Champlain.

XLII. It has been already noticed, that the New-England representatives in congress, as well as a great portion of the people in that section of the country, were early and strongly opposed to the war with Great Britain. Dur-

ing the progress of the war, this opposition continued, and became confirmed. Enlistments of troops into the army from this quarter were, therefore, fewer than under other circumstances might have been expected. Dissensions also arose between the general and state governments respecting the command of the militia, called out by order of the former, to defend the sea-board. Great dissatisfaction prevailed from an apprehension that the affairs of the general government were mismanaged, and to many, it appeared that a crisis was forming, which, unless seasonably provided against, might involve the country in ruin.

Such apprehensions for the political safety extensively prevailing throughout New-England, it was deemed important, by those who felt for them, to take measures to remove publick grievances, and to provide against anticipated evils.

- Accordingly, on the 8th of October, 1814, at an extra session of the Massachusetts Legislature, a committee, to whom was referred the speech of the governour, (Strong,) in the conclusion of their report, recommended the appointment of "delegates to meet and confer with delegates from the States of New-England, or any of them, upon the subjects of their publick grievances and concerns"—"and also to take measures, if they shall think proper, for procuring a convention of delegates from all the United States, in order to revise the constitution thereof, and more effectually to secure the support and attachment of *all* the people, by placing *all* upon the basis of fair representation."

This resolution met with a spirited opposition from a respectable minority, both in the senate and house of representatives—but finally passed. Delegates were accordingly chosen. This example was followed by Rhode-Island and Connecticut. Vermont refused, and New-Hampshire neglected to send.

On the 15th of December, these delegates, together with two elected by counties in New-Hampshire, and one similarly elected in Vermont, met at Hartford. After a

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session of near three weeks, they published a report, in which, after dwelling upon the publick grievances felt by the New-England States particularly, and by the country at large in no small degree; they proceeded to suggest several alterations of the federal constitution, with a view to their adoption by the respective states of the Union.

These alterations consisted of seven articles—*first*, that representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned to the number of free persons;—*secondly*, that no new State shall be admitted into the union without the concurrence of two thirds of both houses;—*thirdly*, that congress shall not have power to lay an embargo for more than sixty days;—*fourthly*, that congress shall not interdict commercial intercourse, without the concurrence of two thirds of both houses;—*fifthly*, that war shall not be declared without the concurrence of a similar majority; *sixthly*, that no person who shall be hereafter naturalized, shall be eligible as a member of the senate or house of representatives, or hold any civil office under the authority of the United States; and *seventhly*, that no person shall be elected twice to the presidency, nor the president be elected from the same State two terms in succession.

The report of the convention concluded with a resolution, providing for the calling of another convention, should the United States “refuse their consent to some arrangement whereby the New-England States, separately, or in concert, might be empowered to assume upon themselves the defence of their territory against the enemy,” appropriating a reasonable proportion of the publick taxes for this purpose; or, “should peace not be concluded, and the defence of the New-England States be neglected as it has been since the commencement of the war.”

The conclusion of a treaty of peace with Great Britain, not long after being announced, another convention was not called; and on the submission of the above amendments of the constitution to the several states, they were rejected.

No act of the federal party has been so bitterly reprehended by their opponents, as the formation of the Hartford Convention. It is represented by them, as a treasonable combination of ambitious individuals, who, taking advantage of the embarrassments of the national administration, arising out of the war, sought to ~~cover the union~~; and were only deterred from an ~~open attempt to~~ accomplish their purpose by the unexpected conclusion of a treaty of peace with Great Britain—which dis-

embarrassed the administration—and swept away all grounds upon which to prosecute their designs.

In defence of the convention, it has been urged, that the individuals who composed it, assembled in obedience to legislative appointment; and be the formation of a convention right or wrong, they, as individuals, were not responsible for it. That the calling of the convention was right, is urged on the following grounds: at the period of its formation, the situation of the country was such as gave serious grounds of alarm to reflecting men;—the war operations had been singularly disastrous; the recruiting service languished; the national treasury was almost penniless; the national credit was shaken, and loans were effected at a ruinous discount; the New-England seaboard was left exposed to the enemy—and instead of securing the confidence of the people of the eastern states, by filling the military and civil offices under the general government, with men of known talents and character, the administration committed the interests of the nation at a critical period to men condemned by a vast majority of the people in those states.

The public mind, in view of this state of things, was excited to a pitch bordering on insurrection; and as their representation in congress was unheard, they looked with earnest importunity to their state legislatures. What could be done? From the earliest dates of its history, the legislatures of New-England had been accustomed to call conventions, at periods of common danger, to confer upon the public welfare. It was natural at this moment to resort to the same course; and instead of favouring the suspicion of treasonable intentions by the character of the men selected to form this convention; the age, gravity, and established reputation of the greater part of the members of it are a fair refutation of such suspicions.

There are no clear proofs to support the charge of treasonable designs on the part of the convention; on the contrary their *doings*, which are the only fair test of their motives, and the only just grounds upon which to form its character, and which are before the world in their report, and their secret journal, triumphantly refute such a charge. And it is further maintained that the actual operation of the proceedings of the convention, was, instead of rousing opposition to the general government, to sooth the publick apprehensions, and quiet that restless anxiety which pervaded the country.

XLIII. As early as the month of September, indications of no dubious character were given; that notwithstanding the negotiations pending between the American and British commissioners at Ghent, serious preparations were

making for an invasion of Louisiana. About December 5th, certain intelligence was received that a British fleet, consisting of sixty sail, was off the coast to the east of the Mississippi.

In the course of the month, fifteen thousand troops were landed, under the command of Sir Edward Packenham, and, on the 8th of January, they attacked the Americans, amounting to about six thousand, chiefly militia, in their intrenchments, before New-Orleans. After an engagement of more than an hour, the enemy having lost their commander in chief, and Major-General Gibbs, and having been cut to pieces in an almost unexampled degree, fled in confusion, leaving their dead and wounded on the field of battle.

On the receipt of intelligence that the enemy were off the coast of the Mississippi, Commodore Patterson despatched five gun boats to watch their motions. These boats being unfortunately captured, the enemy were left to choose their point of attack, entirely unmolested.

A part of the British forces were landed on the 22d of December, and several engagements took place between them and the Americans, some miles from New-Orleans, but nothing decisive was effected on either side.

During these preliminary engagements, Gen. Jackson, commanding at New-Orleans, had been diligently employed in preparations to defend the place. His front was a straight line of one thousand yards, defended by upwards of three thousand infantry and artillerists. The ditch contained five feet of water, and his front, from having been flooded by opening the levees, and by frequent rains, was rendered slippery and muddy. Eight distinct batteries were judiciously disposed, mounting in all twelve guns of different calibres. On the opposite side of the river was a strong battery of fifteen guns.

On the morning of the 8th of January, General Packenham brought up his forces, amounting to twelve thousand men, to the attack. The British deliberately advanced in solid columns, over an even plain, in front of the American intrenchments, the men carrying, besides their muskets, fascines, and some of them ladders.

A solemn silence now prevailed through the American lines, until the enemy approached within reach of the batteries, which at that moment opened an incessant and destructive cannonade. The enemy, notwithstanding, continued to ad-

vance, closing up their ranks as fast as they were opened by the fire of the Americans.

A length, they came within reach of the musketry and rifles. The extended American line now unitedly presented one sheet of fire, and poured in upon the British columns an unceasing tide of death. Hundreds fell at every discharge, and by columns were swept away.

Being unable to stand the shock, the British became disordered and fled. In an attempt to rally them, Gen. Pakenham was killed. Gens. Gibbs and Kean succeeded in pushing forward their columns a second time, but the second approach was still more fatal than the first. The fires again rolled from the American batteries, and from thousands of muskets. The advancing columns again broke and fled; a few platoons only reached the edge of the ditch, there to meet a more certain destruction. In a third but unavailing attempt to lead up their troops, Generals Gibbs and Kean were severely wounded, the former mortally.

The field of battle now exhibited a scene of extended carnage. Seven hundred brave soldiers were sleeping in death, and one thousand four hundred were wounded. Five hundred were made prisoners—making a loss to the British, on this memorable day, of near three thousand men. The Americans lost in the engagement only seven killed, and six wounded.

The enemy now sullenly retired, and on the night of the 18th, evacuated their camp, and, with great secrecy, embarked on board their shipping.

XLIV. The news of the victory at New-Orleans spread with haste through the United States, and soon after was followed by the still more welcome tidings of a treaty of peace, which was signed at Ghent, on the 24th of December, 1814. On the 17th of February, this treaty was ratified by the president and senate.

Upon the subjects for which the war had been professedly declared, the treaty, thus concluded, was silent. It provided only for the suspension of hostilities—the exchange of prisoners—the restoration of territories and possessions obtained by the contending powers, during the war—the adjustment of unsettled boundaries—and for a combined effort to effect the entire abolition of traffick in slaves.

But whatever diversity of opinion had prevailed about the justice or policy of the war—or now prevailed about the merits of the treaty—all parties welcomed the return of peace. The soldier gladly exchanged the toils of the camp for the rest of his home; the mariner once more spread his canvass to the

wind, and fearless of molestation, joyfully stretched his way on the ocean; and the yeomanry of the land, unaccustomed to the din of arms, gladly returned to their wonted care of the field and the flock.

XLV. The treaty with England was followed, on the 30th of June, 1815, by a treaty with the dey of Algiers, concluded at Algiers at that time, by William Shaler and Com. Stephen Decatur, agents for the United States.

The war which thus ended by treaty was commenced by the dey himself, as early as the year 1812. At that time the American consul, Mr. Lear, was suddenly ordered to depart from Algiers, on account of the arrival of a cargo of naval and military stores, for the regency of Algiers, in fulfilment of treaty stipulations, which the dey alleged were not in such quantity or quality as he expected. At the same time, depredations were commenced upon our commerce. Several American vessels were captured and condemned, and their crews subjected to slavery.

Upon a representation of the case by the president, to congress, that body formally declared war against the dey in March. Soon after, an American squadron sailed for the Mediterranean, captured an Algerine brig, and a forty-four gun frigate, and at length appeared before Algiers.

The respectability of the American force, added to the two important victories already achieved, had prepared the way for the American commissioners to dictate a treaty upon such a basis as they pleased. Accordingly, the model of a treaty was sent to the dey, who signed it. By this treaty, the United States were exempted from paying tribute in future—captured property was to be restored by the dey—prisoners to be delivered up without ransom, &c. &c.

XLVI. By the ninth article of the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, it was stipulated by the former, that measures should be immediately taken to establish a peace with the several tribes of Indians which had been engaged in hostilities against the United States. Such measures were accordingly taken, and, in his message, December, 1815, the president communicated to congress, that a renewal of treaties had readily been acceded to by several tribes, and that other more distant tribes would probably follow their example, upon proper explanations.

XLVII. The treaty with Great Britain, which ended

the war, left the subject of commercial intercourse between the two nations to future negotiation. In the summer following the close of the war, plenipotentiaries, respectively appointed by the two countries for that purpose, met at London, and on the 3d of July, signed "a convention, by which to regulate the commerce between the territories of the United States, and of his Britannick majesty."

This convention provided for a reciprocal liberty of commerce between the two countries—for an equalization of duties on importations and exportations from either country to the other—and for the admission of American vessels to the principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, viz, Madras, Calcutta, Bombay, &c. Of this convention the president spoke in terms of approbation, in his message to congress; but by a large portion of the community it was received with coldness, from an apprehension that it would operate unfavourably to America, and would seriously abridge her commerce. The convention was to be binding only for four years.

XLVIII. By the second article of the treaty with Great Britain, it was agreed, that all vessels, taken by either power, within twelve days from the exchange of ratifications, between twenty-three degrees and fifty degrees of north latitude, should be considered lawful prizes. A longer period was stipulated for more distant latitudes. Within the time limited by this article, several actions took place, and several vessels of various descriptions were captured by each of the belligerents. The frigate *President* was taken January 15th, 1815, by a British squadron; the British ships *Cyane*, *Levant*, and *Penguin*, were captured by the Americans.

In consequence of the continued blockade of Commodore Decatur's squadron at New-London, that officer was transferred to the *President*, then at New-York. Soon after taking command of her, a cruise was contemplated by the commodore, in conjunction with the *Peacock*, *Hornet*, and *Tom Bowline*. Thinking it more safe to venture out singly, the commodore appointed a place of rendezvous for the vessels, and set sail in the *President*. Through the carelessness of the pilot, his vessel, in passing out, struck upon the bar, where she lay for two hours tossing about, by which her ballast was deranged, and her trim for sailing lost. Trusting to the excellence of his

vessel, however, and not being able to return to port, the commodore put out to sea.

At daylight, he fell in with a British squadron, consisting of the *Endymion*, *Tenedos*, and *Pomone* frigates, with the *Majestic* razee. In spite of every exertion, they gained upon him; at length the *Endymion* came within reach, and opened her fire. Commodore Decatur determined to engage her before the other vessels should come up. This he now did, and in a short time completely silenced her. By this time, the rest of the squadron had arrived; being unwilling to sacrifice his men in a useless contest, on receiving the fire of the nearest frigate, he surrendered. Commodore Decatur was taken on board the *Endymion*, and although she was only a wreck, he was required to surrender his sword to the officer of that vessel. To this the spirit of Decatur could not submit, and he indignantly refused to relinquish it to any one, but to the commander of the squadron.

The *Cyane*, a frigate of thirty-four guns, and the *Levant*, a sloop of eighteen thirty pound carronades, were taken by the *Constitution* about the same time.

The *Peacock*, *Hornet*, and *Tom Bowline*, left New-York a few days after the sailing of the *President*, without having heard of her capture. On the 23d of January, the *Hornet* parted company, and directed her course towards *Tristan d'Acuna*, the place of rendezvous. On the 23d of March, she descried the British brig *Penguin*, of eighteen guns and a twelve pound carronade, to the southward and eastward of the island. Captain Biddle hove to while the *Penguin* bore down.

At forty minutes past one, the British brig opened her fire. After fifteen minutes the *Penguin* gradually neared the *Hornet* with an intention to board, the captain having given orders for that purpose. At this time, he was killed by a grape shot. Her lieutenant then bore her up, and running her bowsprit between the main and mizzen rigging of the *Hornet*, gave orders to board. His men, however, perceiving the crew of the *Hornet* ready to receive them, refused to follow him. At this moment the heavy swells of the sea lifted the *Hornet* ahead. The commander of the *Penguin* called out that he had surrendered, and Captain Biddle ordered his men to cease firing.

Immediately after this, an officer of the *Hornet* called to Captain Biddle, that a man in the enemy's shrouds was taking aim at him. Before he could change his position, a musket ball struck him in the neck, and wounded him severely. Two marines immediately levelled their pieces, and killed the wretch before he had brought his gun from his shoulder. The crew

of the *Hornet*, indignant at this outrage, demanded to give the enemy a fresh broadside, and the vessel had nearly wore round for that purpose, before Captain Biddle could restrain the justly exasperated crew. The loss of the *Penguin* was fourteen in killed, and twenty-eight wounded. The *Hornet* had one killed and eleven wounded. The former vessel was so seriously injured, that Captain Biddle sunk her.

XLIX. The attention of congress, during their session in the year 1815—1816, was called to a bill which had for its object the incorporation of a National Bank. In the discussion which followed, much diversity of opinion was found to prevail, not only as to the constitutional power of congress to establish such an institution, but also as to the principles upon which it should be modelled. After weeks of animated debate, a bill incorporating the "*Bank of the United States*," with a capital of thirty-five millions of dollars, passed, and on Wednesday, April 10th, received the signature of the president.

Of the stock of the bank, seven millions were to be subscribed by the United States, the remaining twenty-eight by individuals. The affairs of the corporation were to be managed by twenty-five directors, five of whom were to be chosen by the president, with the advice and consent of the senate; the remainder to be elected by the stockholders, at the banking house in Philadelphia. The charter of the bank is to continue in force until the 3d of March, 1836.

L. The summer of 1816 passed away without being marked by any events of peculiar moment. The country appeared gradually recovering from the embarrassments induced by the war, and that asperity of feeling, which had agitated the different political parties in the United States, was visibly wearing away.

LI. In December, 1816, Indiana became an independent state, and was received into the union.

Detached places in Indiana were settled by the French; upwards of a century ago. The exact period, at which the first settlement was made, is uncertain.

In 1763, the territory was ceded by France to England. By the treaty of Greenville in 1795, the United States obtained of the Indians several small grants of land within this territory; and, in subsequent years, still more extensive tracts. During the war with England, which broke out in 1812, In-

diana was the scene of many Indian depredations, and of many unusually severe battles, between the hostile tribes, and the troops of the United States.

Until 1801, Indiana formed a part of the great north-western territory, but, at that date, it was erected into a territorial government, with the usual powers and privileges. In December, 1815, the inhabitants amounting to sixty thousand, the legislature petitioned congress for admission into the union, and the privilege of forming a state constitution. A bill for this purpose passed congress, in April, 1816; a convention of delegates met in conformity to it, by which a constitution was adopted, and Indiana became an independent state, and a member of the union in December following.

LII. 1817. On Wednesday, February 12th, the votes for Mr. Madison's successor were counted in the presence of both houses of Congress, when it appeared that James Monroe was elected president, and Daniel D. Tompkins vice president of the United States, for the four years from and after the 4th of the ensuing March.

Notes.

LIII. **Manners.** The only noticeable change of manners, which seems to have taken place during this period, arose from the spirit of pecuniary speculation, which pervaded the country during the war. Money was borrowed with facility, and fortunes were often made in a day. Extravagance and profligacy were, to some extent, the consequence. The return of peace, and the extensive misfortunes which fell upon every part of the community, counteracted these vices, and restored more sober and industrious habits.

LIV. **Religion.** During this period, extensive revivals of religion prevailed, and liberal and expanded plans were devised and commenced for the promotion of christianity. Several theological institutions were founded, missionary and bible societies were established, and a great call for ministers of the gospel was heard.

LV. Trade and Commerce. During this period, trade and commerce were crippled by foreign restrictions, our own acts of non-intercourse, and at length, by the war with England. During this war our carrying trade was destroyed, nor was it restored by the peace of 1815.

On the return of peace, immense importations were made from England, the country being destitute of English merchandise. The market was soon glutted, prices fell, and extensive bankruptcies were the consequence.

LVI. Agriculture. Agriculture, during this period, cannot be said to have made great advances.

An excessive disposition in the people, for trade and speculation, drew off the attention of the more intelligent and active part of the community, and directed much of the capital of the country to other objects. Upon the return of peace, however, when mercantile distresses overspread the land, agriculture was again resorted to, as one of the surest means of obtaining a livelihood. Men of capital, too, turned their attention to farming; agricultural societies were established, in all parts of the country; more enlightened methods of culture were introduced, and agriculture became not only one of the most profitable, but one of the most popular objects of pursuit.

LVII. Arts and Manufactures. During the war which occurred in this period, the intercourse with England and other places being stopped, the country was soon destitute of those articles which had been supplied by English manufactories. Accordingly, the people began to manufacture for themselves. Extensive manufacturing establishments were started for almost every sort of merchandise.

Such was their success at the outset, that an immense capital was soon invested in them, and the country began to be supplied with almost every species of manufacture from our own establishments. After the peace, the country being inundated with British goods, these establishments suffered the severest embarrassments, and many of them were entirely broke down. A considerable portion of them, however, were maintained and continued to flourish.

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-PERIOD 1800-1817-

LVIII. Population. At the expiration of Mr. Madison's term of office, in 1817, the number of inhabitants in the United States was about nine millions five hundred thousand.

LIX. Education. The pecuniary embarrassments experienced throughout the country, during the latter part of this period, sensibly affected some institutions devoted to science and benevolence, especially those which depend, in part, upon the yearly contributions of the patrons of learning and religion, for the means of support. In several of the higher seminaries, the number of students was, for a time, diminished. Nevertheless, parochial schools, academies, and colleges, upon the whole, continued to increase, and to qualify many for the common and higher professions of life.

A theological institution was established at Princeton, New-Jersey, in 1812, by the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church. In 1821, the theological seminary of the Associate Reformed Church, in New-York, was united to that of Princeton, and its library, consisting of four thousand volumes, which cost seventeen thousand dollars, was transferred to the latter place. This seminary has three professors, and in 1821, had seventy-three students.

During the same year, Hamilton College was incorporated at Clinton, New-York; it has been liberally patronised by the legislature, and by individuals.

UNITED STATES.



Period X.

DISTINGUISHED FOR MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.



James Monroe.

*Extending from the inauguration of President Monroe,
1817, to the close of the year 1822.*

I. On the 4th of March, 1817, Mr. Monroe took the oath prescribed by the constitution, and entered upon the duties of president of the United States.

The condition of the country, on the accession of Mr. Monroe to the presidency, was in several respects more prosperous and happy, than on the accession of his predecessor. Not only had war ceased, and the political asperity, excited by it, given place to better feelings, but efforts were made in every section of the union, to revive those plans of business, which the war had nearly annihilated.

The country had suffered too much, however, to regain, immediately, its former prosperity. Commerce was far from being flourishing; a considerable part of the legitimate trade was in the hands of foreigners; many ships were lying unemployed, and the ship building in many ports had nearly ceased. The manufacturing establishments, which had not been entirely broken down, were sustaining a precarious existence. Foreign merchandise was inundating the country; and the specie, borrowed in Europe for the national bank, at an excessive premium, as well as that which was previously in the country, was rapidly leaving it to pay the balance of trade against us. In his inaugural address, however, the president spoke in animating terms of the happy state of the country, and of its prospects of regaining, at no distant period, that measure of prosperity, which in former years it had enjoyed.

II. In the summer and autumn, following his inauguration, the president made a tour through the northern and eastern states of the union.

The objects of this tour were connected with the national interests. Congress had appropriated large sums of money for the fortification of the seacoast, and inland frontiers, for the establishment of naval docks, and for increasing the navy. The superintendence of these works belonged to the president. Solicitous to discharge his duty in reference to them with judgment, fidelity, and economy, he was induced to visit the most important points along the seacoast, and in the interior, from a conviction of being better able to direct in reference to them, with the knowledge derived from personal observation, than by means of information communicated to him by others.

III. Congress met on the 1st of December. In his message at the opening of the session, the president stated that the national credit was attaining a high elevation; that preparations for the defence of the country were progressing, under a well digested system; that arrangements had been made with Great Britain to reduce the naval force of the two countries on the western lakes, and that it was agreed that each country should keep possession of the

islands which belonged to it before the war; and that the foreign relations of the country continued to be pacifick.

The message concluded with recommending the surviving officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army to the special notice of congress, and the repeal of the internal duties, on the ground that the state of the treasury rendered their longer continuance unnecessary.

IV. On the 11th, the state of MISSISSIPPI was acknowledged by congress as sovereign and independent, and was admitted to the union.

The first European, who visited the present state of Mississippi, appears to have been Ferdinand de Soto, a native of Badajoz, in Spain, who landed on the coast of Florida on the 25th of May, 1539. He spent three years in the country searching for gold, but at length died, and was buried on the banks of the Mississippi, May, 1542.

In 1683, M. de Salle descended the Mississippi and gave the name of Louisiana to the country. In consequence of this, the French claimed to have jurisdiction over it. In 1716, they formed a settlement at the Natchez, and built a fort, which they named Rosalie. Other settlements were effected in subsequent years. The French settlements were, however, seriously disturbed by the Indians, particularly by the Natchez, once the most powerful of all the southern tribes.

The French retained an acknowledged title to the country, on the east side of the Mississippi, until the treaty of 1763, when they ceded their possessions, east of that river, to the English. By the treaty of 1763, Great Britain relinquished the Floridas to Spain, without specifick boundaries; and at the same time, ceded to the United States all the country north of the thirty-first degree of latitude. The Spaniards retained possession of the Natchez and the ports north of the thirty-first degree, until 1798, when they finally abandoned them to the United States.

In the year 1800, the territory between the Mississippi and the western boundary of Georgia was erected into a distinct territorial government. By treaty in 1801, at fort Adams, the Choctaw Indians relinquished to the United States a large body of land, and other cessions have since been made. On the 1st of March, 1817, congress authorized the people of the western part of Mississippi territory to form a constitution and state government. A convention met in July, 1817, by which a constitution was formed, and in December following, Mississippi was admitted into the union as a separate state.

V. In the course of the month, an expedition which had been set on foot by a number of adventurers, from different countries, against East and West Florida, was terminated by the troops of the United States. These adventurers claimed to be acting under the authority of some of the South American colonies, and had formed an establishment at Amelia Island, a Spanish province, then the subject of negotiation between the United States and Spain. Their avowed object being an invasion of the Floridas, and of course an invasion of a part of the United States, the American government deemed itself authorized, without designing any hostility to Spain, to take possession of Amelia Island, their head quarters.

VI. Several bills of importance passed congress, during their session, in the winter of 1817, 1818; a bill allowing to the members of the senate, and house of representatives the sum of eight dollars per day, during their attendance; a second, in compliance with the recommendation of the president, abolishing the internal duties; and a third, providing, upon the same recommendation, for the indigent officers and soldiers of the revolutionary army.

VII. In April 1818, ILLINOIS adopted a state constitution, and in December following, was admitted as a member of the union.

Illinois derives its name from its principal river, which, in the language of the Indians, signifies *the river of men*. The first settlements, like those of Indiana, were made by the French, and were the consequence of the adventurous enterprises of M. de la Salle, in search of the Mississippi.—The first settlements were the villages of Kaskaskia and Cahokia. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, the settlements of Illinois were represented to have been in a flourishing condition. But subsequently they in a great measure declined.

From the beginning to the middle of the eighteenth century, little was heard of the settlements of the French, on the banks of the Illinois. About 1749, the French began to fortify the Wabash and Illinois, in order to resist the British. In 1762, all the country to the east of the Mississippi was ceded to the latter power, and consequently Illinois passed under the British dominion. At the peace of 1783, Great Britain renounced its claims of sovereignty over this country, as well as over the

United States. Virginia, however, and some other states, claimed the whole country, north and west of the Ohio; but at the instance of congress, a cession of these claims was made to the general government. Illinois remained a part of Indiana until 1809, when a distinct territorial government was established for it. In 1818, the people formed a constitution, and it is now one of the United States.

VIII. Early after the conclusion of this session of congress, the president, in pursuance of his determination to visit such parts of the United States as were most exposed to the naval and military forces of an enemy, prepared to survey the Chesapeake bay, and the country lying on its extensive shores.

In the month of May, he left Washington, accompanied by the secretary of war, and the secretary of the navy, with other gentlemen of distinction. On his arrival at Annapolis, the president and his suite minutely examined the waters contiguous, in reference to their fitness for a naval depot. Embarking at this place on board a vessel, he further examined the coast, and thence proceeded to Norfolk. Having at length accomplished the principal object of his tour, in the examination of the Chesapeake bay, he returned to Washington, June 17th, through the interior of Virginia. The respectful, and affectionate demonstrations of attachment, paid him during his northern tour, were renewed in this.

IX. On the 27th of May, 1818, a treaty, concluded with Sweden, at Stockholm, on the 4th of September, 1816, by Mr. Russel, minister plenipotentiary to that court, was ratified by the president and senate, on the part of the United States. The same was ratified by the king of Sweden on the 24th of the following July.

This treaty provided for maintaining peace and friendship between the two countries—reciprocal liberty of commerce—equalization of duties, &c. &c. The treaty was to continue in force for eight years from the exchange of ratifications.

X. During the year 1818, a war was carried on between the Seminole Indians and the United States, which terminated in the complete discomfiture of the former.

The history of this war is rendered more interesting by the conspicuous part which Gen. Jackson, the hero of New-Orleans, bore in it, and the decisive, though novel, measures which he adopted in prosecuting it.

XI. On the 28th of January, 1819, a convention be-

n Great Britain and the United States, concluded at London, October 20th, 1818, and ratified by the President on the 2d of November following, was ratified by the President of the United States.

In the first article of this convention, the citizens of the United States have liberty, in common with the subjects of Great Britain, to take fish on the southern, western, and northern shores of Newfoundland, &c. The second article establishes the northern boundaries of the United States from the Lake of the Woods to the Stoney Mountains. By the fourth article, the commercial convention between the two countries, concluded at London, in 1815, is extended for the term of ten years longer, &c. &c.

II. On the 22d of February following, a treaty was concluded at Washington, by John Quincy Adams, and Don Manuel de Onís, by which East and West Florida, with all the islands adjacent, &c. were ceded by Spain to the United States.

By this treaty, the western boundary between the United States and Spain was settled. A sum not exceeding five millions of dollars is to be paid by the United States, out of the proceeds of sales of lands in Florida, or in stock, or money, to the citizens of the United States, on account of Spanish spoliation injuries. To liquidate these claims, a board was to be constituted by the government of the United States, of American citizens, to consist of three commissioners, who should report in three years.

III. On the 2d of March, 1819, the government of the ARKANSAS Territory was organized by act of congress. The earliest settlement, within the limits of the territory of Arkansas, was made by the Chevalier de Tonté, in 1685, at the Indian village of Arkansas, situated on the river of that name. Emigrants from Canada afterwards arrived, but the progress of the settlement was slow.

On the cession of Louisiana to the United States, the territory was divided into two parts, the territory of Orleans, south of latitude thirty degrees, and the district of Louisiana, comprehending all the tract of country between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean. In March, 1805, the latter was denominated the Territory of Louisiana. In 1812, this territory was constituted a territorial government, by the name Territory of Missouri. In March, 1819, the inhabitants of the northern parts were formed into a distinct district, by the name of Missouri, and soon after the southern was formed

into a territorial government by the name of Arkansas. In December, 1819, an election for a delegate to congress was held for the first time.

XIV. During the following summer, 1819, the president visited the southern section of the country, having in view the same great national interests which had prompted him in his previous tour to the north.

In this tour the president visited Charleston, Savannah, and Augusta; from this latter place he proceeded to Nashville, through the Cherokee nation, and thence to Louisville and Lexington, Kentucky, whence he returned to the seat of government, early in August.

XV. On the 14th of December following, a resolution passed congress admitting ALABAMA into the union, on an equal footing with the original states.

Alabama, though recently settled, appears to have been visited by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1539. Some scattered settlements were made within the present state of Mississippi before the American revolution, but Alabama continued the hunting ground of savages until a much later period.

After the peace of 1783, Georgia laid claim to this territory, and exercised jurisdiction over it, until the beginning of the present century. In 1795, an act passed the legislature of Georgia, by which twenty-five millions of acres of its *western territory* were sold to companies for five hundred thousand dollars, and the purchase money was paid into their treasury. The purchasers of these lands soon after sold them at advanced prices. The sale of the territory excited a warm opposition in Georgia, and at a subsequent meeting of the legislature, the transaction was impeached, on the ground of bribery, corruption, and unconstitutionality. The records, respecting the sale, were ordered to be *burnt*, and the five hundred thousand dollars to be refunded to the purchasers. Those who had acquired titles of the original purchasers instituted suits in the federal courts.

In 1802, however, Georgia ceded to the United States all her western territory, for one million two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. On this event, the purchasers of the Yazoo land petitioned congress for redress and compensation. After considerable opposition, an act passed for reimbursing them with funded stock, called the Mississippi stock. In 1800, the territory which now forms the states of Mississippi and Alabama, was erected into a territorial government. In 1817, Mississippi territory was divided, and the western portion of it was authorized to form a state constitution. The eastern por-

tion was then formed into a territorial government, and received the name of Alabama. In July, 1819, a convention of delegates met at Huntsville, and adopted a state constitution, which being approved by congress in December following, the state was declared to be henceforth one of the United States.

XVI. In the ensuing year, March 3d, 1820, MAINE became an independent state, and a member of the federal union.

The separation of the District of Maine from Massachusetts, and its erection into an independent state, had been frequently attempted without success. In October, 1785, a convention met at Portland, for the purpose of considering this subject. In the succeeding year, the question was submitted to the people of Maine, to be decided in town meetings, when it was found that a majority of freemen were against the measure.

The subject was renewed in 1802, when a majority appeared averse to a separation. In 1819, an act passed the general court of Massachusetts for ascertaining the wishes of the people; in conformity to which, a vote was taken in all the towns. A large majority were found in favour of a separation. A convention was called, and a constitution adopted, which being approved, Massachusetts and Maine amicably separated, the latter taking her proper rank, as one of the United States.

XVII. On the 3d of March, 1821, the 16th congress closed its second session. Few subjects of importance were discussed, and but little done for the advancement of publick interest, or the promotion of private prosperity. Acts were passed to admit Missouri into the union conditionally; to reduce the military peace establishment to four regiments of artillery, and seven regiments of infantry, with their proper officers; and to carry into further execution the provisions of treaties with Spain and Great Britain.

XVIII. On the 5th, Mr. Monroe, who had been re-elected to the presidency, took the usual oath of office. The re-election of Monroe was nearly unanimous. Mr. Tompkins was again elected vice-president.

XIX. August 10th, 1821, the president, by his proclamation, declared MISSOURI to be an independent state, and that it was admitted into the federal union.

The first permanent settlements in Missouri, appears to have been made at St. Genevieve and New-Bourbon, which were founded soon after the peace of 1803. In the succeeding year,

St. Louis, the capital of the state, was commenced. In 1762 Louisiana, and Missouri of course, were secretly ceded by France to Spain; but the latter did not attempt to take possession of the country until some years after.

Missouri remained in possession of Spain, through the war of the revolution, until the cession of Louisiana to France, in 1801, by which latter power it was ceded to the United States, in 1803.

Upon the cession of Louisiana to the United States, the district, which now forms the *state of Louisiana*, was separated from the territory, and made a distinct government, by the name of the *territory of Orleans*. In 1811, the territory of Orleans became a state, by the name of *Louisiana*. The remaining part of the original province of Louisiana, extending to the Pacifick, was erected into a territorial government, and called *Missouri*. In 1818-19, application was made to congress, by the people of this territory, to form a state constitution. A bill was accordingly introduced for the purpose, a provision of which forbade slavery or involuntary servitude.

The bill with this provision passed the house of representatives, but was rejected in the senate; and, in consequence of this disagreement, the measure, for the time, failed. In the session of 1819-20, the bill was revived; and, after long and animated debates, a compromise was effected, by which slavery was to be tolerated in Missouri, and forbidden in all that part of Louisiana, as ceded by France, lying north of 36° 30' north latitude, except so much as was included within the limits of the state. In the mean time the people of Missouri had formed a state constitution. When this constitution was presented to congress, in 1820-21, a provision in it, which required the legislature to pass laws "to prevent free negroes and mulattoes from coming to, and settling in the state," was strenuously opposed, on the ground that it violated the rights of such persons of that description, as were citizens of any of the United States.

The contest occupied a great part of the session, and it was finally determined, by a small majority, that Missouri should be admitted, upon the fundamental condition, that the contested clause should not be construed to authorize the passage of any laws, excluding citizens of other states from enjoying the privileges to which they are entitled by the constitution of the United States. It was also provided, that if the legislature of Missouri should, by a solemn public act, previously to the 4th Monday of November, 1821, declare the assent of the state to this fundamental condition, the president should issue his proclamation, declaring the admission complete. On

the 24th of June, 1821, the legislature of Missouri assented to the fundamental condition; and, on the 10th of August following, the president's proclamation was issued, declaring the admission complete.

XX. The first session of the seventeenth congress commenced on the 3d of December. The affairs of the nation were generally prosperous, and there seemed to be no obstacle in the way of wise and prudent measures. A spirit of jealousy, however, obtruded itself upon their deliberations, by which some beneficial measures were defeated, and the business of the session was unnecessarily delayed and neglected. Several acts of importance, however, were passed concerning navigation and commerce;—relieving still further the indigent veterans of the revolution;—and fixing the ratio, between population and representation, at one representative for every forty thousand inhabitants.

XXI. During the above session of congress, March 31, 1822, a territorial government was established for **FLORIDA**.

The name of Florida was formerly given to an immense region of country discovered by Cabot, in 1497. The first visitant to the actual territory of Florida, was Ponce de Leon, who landed on Easter day, 1512. Navigators from several countries visited it, and various European sovereigns attempted to appropriate the country to themselves.

Spain, however, held possession of it until 1763, when it was ceded to Great Britain. In May, 1781, Don Galvez captured Pensacola, and, soon afterwards, completed the conquest of the whole of West Florida, which remained in possession of Spain, until 1783, when Great Britain relinquished both provinces of Florida to Spain.

By the treaty of France, in 1803, which ceded Louisiana to the United States, it was declared to be ceded, with the same extent that it had in the hands of Spain, when ceded to France. By virtue of this declaration, the United States claimed the country west of the Perdido river, and, in 1811, took possession of it, except the town and fort of Mobile, which were surrendered the following year. In 1814, a British expedition having been fitted out against the United States, from Pensacola, General Jackson took possession of the town; but, having no authority to hold it, returned to Mobile.

The Seminole Indians, with whom the United States were at war, residing partly within the limits of Florida, and mak-

ing their incursions thence without restraint from the Spaniards, it became necessary to cross the territorial line, to chastise them. Subsequently, General Jackson took possession of Fort St. Marks and Pensacola, which the American troops held till November, 1818, when they were restored to Spain. In 1819, a transfer of the whole province was made, by treaty, to the United States, and, after many vexatious delays, the treaty was ratified by Spain, in October 1820, and, finally, by the United States, in the month of February, 1821. Possession was delivered to General Jackson, as commissioner of the United States, in July, 1821.

XXII. The second session of the seventeenth congress commenced at Washington, on the 2d of December. In his message at the opening of the session, the president informed congress that, in June, a convention of navigation and commerce, resting essentially on a basis of reciprocal and equal advantage to the two countries, had been concluded between France and the United States;—that the prohibition, which had been imposed on the commerce, between the United States and the British colonies, in the West Indies and on this continent, had been removed, and that the ports of those colonies had been opened to the vessels of the U. States by an act of the British parliament.

In a second message, a few days subsequently, the president introduced to the notice of congress the interesting subject of the “multiplied outrages and depredations, recently committed on our seamen and commerce, by *Pirates*, in the West Indies and Gulf of Mexico,” and recommended the immediate organization of an efficient force to suppress them. A bill was accordingly introduced, authorizing the president to provide such a force, and to despatch it immediately to the protection of our persecuted seamen.

The president had mentioned the subject of piracy in his first message; but he was prompted early after to make it the subject of a special communication, in consequence of intelligence that captain Allen, of the *Alligator*, a brave and meritorious officer, had fallen in the neighbourhood of Matanzas, by the hands of these ruthless barbarians, while attempting, in discharge of his duty, to rescue an unprotected merchant ship, which had fallen into their power. Immediately after the passage of the above bill, Commodore Porter was appointed to this service, and, soon after, hoisting his broad pendant on.

board the Peacock, stretched his way, with a respectable force, to chastise these miscreants, that regard no law, and that feel no mercy.

Notes.

EMBRACING A SKETCH OF THE PRESENT CONDITION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

XXIII. Manners. Two centuries have elapsed since the first settlements were commenced in the *United States* by Europeans, yet the people have not acquired that uniform character which belongs to ancient nations, upon whom time, and the stability of institutions have imprinted a particular and individual character. Although partial changes have occurred, which have been noticed in the progress of this work, yet so far down as the present time, the *essential* variations which have taken place are few.

The physiognomy is nearly as varied as the origin of the population is different. English, Irish, German, Scotch, French, and Swiss, all retain something of the first stamp, which belongs to their ancient country. The original roughness and severity of the first settlers are, indeed, lost, and a degree of softness and pliancy, more congenial with an improved state of society, has generally obtained.

XXIV. Religion. The principal religious denominations, at present, in the *United States*, are Presbyterians, and Congregationalists, Baptists, Friends, Episcopalians, and Methodists. The two first of these, unitedly, have more than twenty-five hundred congregations; the number of Baptist congregations exceed two thousand; the Friends have five hundred, and the Episcopalians about three hundred. The Methodists also are numerous.

For the effectual employment of those who wish to be engaged in the christian ministry and in missions, peculiar facili-

ties have been devised; and the plans of benevolence, mentioned under the last period, have been continued and greatly augmented. The American Board of Commissioners for foreign Missions, the American Bible Society, the American Education Society, together with a Society for the colonization of free blacks in Africa, have risen in respectability and resources. Missionaries in considerable numbers are sent, not only into vacant and destitute parts of our own country, to the South and West, and among the Indians; but also to Southern Asia, to Palestine, and to the Islands of the Pacific Ocean.

XXV. Trade and Commerce. The commerce of the United States consists, principally, in the exchange of Agricultural produce for the manufactures of other parts of the world, and the productions of the tropical climates. The principal articles of domestick produce, exported, are cotton, wheat, flour, biscuit, tobacco, lumber, rice, pot and pearl ashes, Indian corn, and meal, dried and pickled fish, beef, rye, pork, &c.

XXVI. Agriculture. Until within a few years, agriculture, as a science, received but little attention in the United States. Few, if any, valuable improvements were attempted. Indifference and uncommon apathy seem to have pervaded society. A new era, however, has recently commenced, and agriculture, both as a science and an art, is receiving much of that attention which its acknowledged importance demands. It is beginning to be regarded, as it should be, not only as the basis of subsistence and population, but as the parent of individual and national opulence.

Men of enlightened minds, and of distinguished wealth, are, in many parts of the country, devoting themselves to the study of the art, and to new and useful experiments. Agricultural societies abound; at the head of which may be seen some of the most scientifick and practical men, combining their powers in favour of agriculture, for the collection and diffusion of information, and for the excitement of industry and emulation.

The exhibitions which annually take place, in almost every county, of cattle, and of the productions of the soil, the learned and often eloquent addresses, which these exhibitions call forth, have a strong tendency to awaken the attention of our

countrymen to a pursuit more favourable to health, virtue, and peace, than any other.

The proportion of the inhabitants of the United States, devoted to agricultural pursuits, is large. By the census of 1820, it appears, that this proportion is more than one fifth of the whole population, or two millions.

XXVII. Arts and Manufactures. The manufacturing establishments in the United States are considerably various and numerous; and though less prosperous than during the late war, are gradually rising from the depression which they experienced immediately after the return of peace, in consequence of the excessive importations of foreign goods, which were then made.

XXVIII. Population. The population of the United States in 1820, was nine millions, six hundred and thirty-seven thousand, nine hundred and ninety-nine; of whom one million, five hundred and thirty-one thousand, four hundred and thirty-six were slaves, and two hundred and thirty-three thousand, three hundred and ninety-eight were free blacks.

XXIX. Education. The education of youth, which is so essential to the well being of society, and intimately connected with the political prosperity of a republican government, has received, as has been noticed in the progress of this work, considerable attention in the United States, in every period since their settlement. The present state of our primary and higher schools, of our colleges, universities, and other establishments of education, is more flourishing than at any former period; their number is annually increasing, and a more liberal spirit, in respect to their endowment, is prevailing.

Reflections.

XXX. Upon concluding this history of our country, we can scarcely refrain from asking, who of our ancestors anticipated results from their toils, so stupendous as those which we behold? Who of them predicted, while they were laying up the pines of the forest for a shelter, that they were commencing an empire, which, within two centuries, would extend thousands of

miles, and embrace, within its bosom, ten millions of the human race?

Who then thought of cities, with their busy population, a thousand miles from the waters of the Atlantick?—or of fleets, on the inland seas, proceeding to, and returning from distant voyages? or of navies pouring forth their thunder and their flame? Such results entered not into sober calculation, and were beyond even the dreams of fancy. Yet two centuries have brought them to pass.

The branch which our fathers planted, under the fostering care of heaven, rose, extended, invigorated. It acquired stability by oppression, and gathered importance from the efforts which were made to crush it. In the progress of our history, we have seen the American people, while sustaining only the character of colonists, and struggling with the discouragements and difficulties of new settlements, maintaining at their own expense, and bringing to prosperous conclusion, wars, which a selfish and jealous mother country, by her pride and imprudence, had occasioned.

We have seen these colonies, amidst all the oppressions which they experienced, through exactions, and calumnies, loss of charters, and one abridgment of liberty after another, still maintaining their loyalty—still indulging the feelings, and adopting the language of affection, until justice and patriotism and religion bid them rise to assert those rights, which the God of nature designed for all his rational offspring.

Through a long and trying war, in which experience had to contend with discipline, and poverty with wealth, we see them pledging their fortunes, liberties, and lives, to one another, and to the astonishment of the world, accomplishing their emancipation. And when emancipated, and transformed into an independent nation, we see them calmly betaking themselves to the organization of a government, under a constitution as wise as it was singular, and whose excellency and competency the experience of more than thirty years has confirmed.—Simultaneously with these events, what extensive conquests have been made on the wilderness! Deserts have put on beauty and fruitfulness, and a way been constantly extending towards the waters of the Pacifick, for the advance of civilization and religion.

Had we the spirit of prophecy, in respect to the future condition of America, this would not be the place to indulge it. No nation, however, ever possessed, in a higher degree, the means of national prosperity. Our territory is ample—our soil fertile—our climate propitious—our citizens enterprising, brave, and persevering. A sea coast of three thousand miles—inland seas,

numerous canals, facilitate foreign and domestick trade. Being free and independent of other nations, we can frame our laws, and fashion our institutions, as experience and an enlightened policy shall dictate. Our universities and colleges are yearly qualifying numbers for the higher professions of life, while our academies and schools are diffusing intelligence to an unparalleled extent, among our virtuous yeomanry.

The Bible and the institutions of Christianity are with us, and are presenting to us all the blessings which religion can impart. Thus circumstanced, what should prevent our country from advancing to that eminence of national happiness, beyond which national happiness cannot extend?—"Manufactures may here rise—busy commerce, inland and foreign, distribute our surplus produce, augment our capital, give energy to industry, improvement to roads, patronage to arts and sciences, vigour to schools, and universality to the institutions of religion; reconciling civil liberty with efficient government; extended population with concentrated action; and unparalleled wealth with sobriety and morality."

Let but the spirit, the practical wisdom, the religious integrity of the first planters of our soil, prevail among rulers and subjects—let God be acknowledged, by giving that place to his word and institutions which they claim—and all these blessings are ours. We shall enjoy peace with nations abroad, and tranquillity at home. As years revolve, the tide of our national prosperity will flow broader and deeper. In the beautiful language of inspiration—"our sons will be as plants grown up in their youth, and our daughters as corner stones, polished after the similitude of a palace. Our garners will be full, including all manner of stores, our sheep will bring forth by thousands, and ten thousands; our oxen will be strong to labour, and there will be no breaking in, or going out, or complaining in our streets.—Happy is that people that is in such a case, yea, happy is that people whose God is the Lord."

THE END.

QUESTIONS.

The more important Questions are in Roman Letters.

QUESTIONS ON INTRODUCTION.

How does History incite to virtue, and warn against vice? How does it instruct us in politics? In what way does it display the dealings of God with mankind? What other advantages are to be derived from the study of history?

GENERAL DIVISION

Into how many periods may the history of the United States be divided? What will be the extent of the first, (second, third, &c.) period, and for what is it distinguished? *Repeat this last question on every period.*

Period I.

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I. Who made the early discoveries on the continent of America? Who took the lead? Who was Christopher Columbus? Under whose patronage did he sail? In what year? What place did he first discover? *Relate the most remarkable circumstances of his voyage. Give an account of Americus Vesputius.*

II. What were the first discoveries made under English patronage? When? By whom?

III. *What is said of the early discoveries of the French in America?*

IV. *What is said of Sir Walter Raleigh's expedition to America in 1584? Whence had Virginia its name?*

V. When and by whom was Cape Cod discovered?

NOTES.

VI. What was the state of the country on the arrival of the first settlers?

VII. By whom was the country inhabited? What was their number? physical character? general character? *What can you say of their literature? arts and manufactures? agriculture? skill in medicine? employments? amusements? dress? habitations? domestick utensils? food? money? society? war? government? religious notions? marriage? treatment of females? rites of burial? origin?*

Period XX.

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I. When and where was the first permanent English settlement made in North America? By what company was the Jamestown colony sent out?

III. When, where, and by whom, were the first settlements made in New-York?

IV. How did New-England get its name? When and where was the first permanent settlement made? By whom? *What motives influenced the Puritans to emigrate to America? Give an account of their voyage.*

V. *What patent did James I. grant in 1610?*

VI. *With whom did the Plymouth colony make a treaty? How long did it last?*

IX. When, where, and by whom was New-Hampshire first settled?

XII. When was the foundation laid for the colony of Massachusetts Bay? When was the first settlement begun? Where? By whom?

XIII. To whom was Maryland first granted? By whom? When? When and by whom was it settled?

XIV. When and where was the first house erected in Connecticut? What towns were settled soon after.

XV. When, where, and by whom, was Rhode Island first settled? *Who was Mr. Williams? Give some account of his banishment.*

XVI. When did the Pequot war take place? Between whom? *Give particulars.*

XVII. When, and by whom, was the colony of New-Haven settled?

XVIII. *When did the colony of Connecticut first form a constitution? What did it ordain? How long did it remain essentially unaltered?*

XX. What is said of the first settlement of the Province of Maine?

XXI. When and for what reasons did the New-England colonies first form a union? *Give an account of it and of its effects.*

XXII. *When was a charter granted to Connecticut? What other colony did this charter embrace?*

XXIII. When did King Charles II. grant the territory of New-York to his brother the Duke of York? When was the colony taken by the English?

XXIV. To whom did the Duke of York sell the territory of New-Jersey? When was it settled?

XXV. Who first settled Delaware? When? Who claimed it? *When did it surrender to the English?*

XXVII. When was Carolina first settled? Where? What territory did it originally embrace?

XXVIII. When did Philip's war break out? *Give an account of it?*

XXIX. When did New-York surrender to a Dutch fleet? When was it restored to the English?

XXX. What rebellion was caused in Virginia about this time, and what caused it? Give an account of it.

XXXI. When was New-Jersey divided into East and West Jersey? What can you say of New-Jersey after this?

XXXII. What can you tell of the purchase of the Province of Maine by Massachusetts?

XXXIII. When was New-Hampshire separated from Massachusetts? Give further particulars.

XXXIV. When and to whom was Pennsylvania granted by Charles II.? When was it settled? By whom?

XXXV. When was the charter of Massachusetts taken away, and for what reason?

XXXVI. What proceedings followed towards the other colonies under James II.? Who was appointed governour of New-England? What was his conduct?

XXXVII. What event relieved the colonies of the oppression of Andross?

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

What colonies were settled during this period? (sec. 1, 3, 4, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 20, 24, 25, 27, 29,) and what people settled them? What was occurred? (sec. 16, 28.)—Trace the principal events relating to the *Virginia colony*, (sec. 1, 2, 7, 10, 30,)—to the *Plymouth colony*, (sec. 4, 6, 8, 11,)—to *New-York*, (sec. 3, 23, 29,)—to *New-Hampshire*, (sec. 9, 33,)—to *Massachusetts Bay*, (sec. 12, 21, 32, 35,)—to *Maryland*, (sec. 13,)—to *Connecticut*, (sec. 14, 16, 18, 21, 22, 29, 35, 36,)—to *Rhode-Island*, (sec. 15, 35, 36,)—to *New-Haven*, (sec. 17, 19, 21,)—to *New-Jersey*, (sec. 24, 31,)—to *Delaware* (sec. 25,)—to *Carolina*, (sec. 27,)—to *Pennsylvania*, (sec. 34.)

NOTES.

XXXVIII. What varieties of character existed among the colonists at the close of this period? Give an account of the people of New-England—of New-York—of Virginia.

XXXIX. To what church was the Virginia colony devoted? How did they support their clergy? What can you say of the New-England planters in respect to religion? When and where was the Dutch Reformed Church introduced into America? When and where the Roman Catholics, Baptists, Quakers? What laws were passed in respect to the two last?

XL. With whom did the colonists chiefly trade during this period? What did they import and export?

XLI. What attention was paid to Agriculture? What was chiefly cultivated? When were neat cattle first introduced?

XLII. What attention was paid to Manufactures? *What can you say of the buildings of the colonists? of ship building? of printing?*

XLIII. What was probably the number of inhabitants in the English American colonies in 1689?

XLIV. What attention was paid to Education? *What colleges were founded?*

Period XXX.

What is the extent of this period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I. How were the colonies affected at the accession of William to the throne of England? What did the colonies do? What took place in New-York? *Give an account of Leisler's usurpation?*

II. What was the state of Carolina about this time? What caused dissensions there? How were they healed?

III. When and where commenced the singular notions of the people of New-England on the subject of witchcraft? *Give an account of this infatuation?*

IV. What war soon followed the accession of William and Mary? When did it begin and end? How was it excited? *What expeditions were fitted out against the colonies? Give an account of the attack on Schenectady.*

V. *What successful expedition did Massachusetts attempt in turn under Sir William Phipps? What unfortunate expedition followed?*

VI. *How were the Indians affected?*

VII. *What expedition was planned under the Marquis Nesmond? How came it to fail? What was the state of the country on the termination of King William's war?*

VIII. What war soon succeeded King William's war? When did it begin and end? *What occasioned it?*

IX. Upon what part of the country did the war in America fall? What secured New-York?

X. *Give an account of the unsuccessful expedition against Port Royal in 1697.*

XII. *When and by whom was Port Royal at length taken?*

XIV. How was Carolina affected by Queen Anne's war? *Give an account of Gov. Moore's expedition against St. Augustine, Florida.*

XVI. *What attempt was made by the French and Spaniards in 1697, to annex Carolina to Florida? Did it succeed?*

XVIII. When did Queen Anne's war terminate? What were the provisions of the treaty—after the peace was known in America, what took place in respect to the Indians?

XXII. When was Georgia settled? What objects were in view in its settlement? *What can you say of the colony?*

XXVI. When did the war of George II. begin? What was the most important event of this war? Give an account of the capture of *Louisburg*?

XXVIII. When were preliminaries of peace signed between France and England? Where? What were the terms of the treaty?

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

What was occurred during this period? (sec. 4, 8, 26.)

What colony was settled? (sec. 22.)

Trace the principal events relating to Massachusetts (sec. 1.)—to Rhode-Island and Connecticut (sec. 1.)—to New-York (sec. 1.)—to Carolina (sec. 2, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20.)—to Georgia (sec. 22, 23, 24, 25.)

NOTES.

XXIX. What can you say of the inhabitants of the colonies at the close of this period? What were the varieties of character?

XXX. What of the abatement of religious intolerance?—*When and where were the Mennonites introduced? the Tinkers? Moravians? German Lutherans? What is said of Episcopacy?*

XXXI. What of the increase of trade and commerce? *Was the balance of trade in favour or against the colonies? How did they pay it?*

XXXII. What is said of Agriculture? *What did they raise principally in the north?—what in the middle colonies?—in the southern?*

XXXIII. What is said of Arts and Manufactures? What progress was made in printing?

XXXIV. What of Population?

XXXV. What of Education? *What colleges were founded*

Period XV.

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I: What was the state of the colonies at the peace of *Aix la Chapelle*, 1748? *What losses had been sustained?*

II. How long before war was again declared between France and England? What was the general cause leading to this war? What particular circumstance served to open the war? Who were the Ohio company, and what lands had been granted to them?—What steps did the governour of Canada take? Whom did the French governour seize? What line of fortifications was erected by the French? To whom did the Ohio company complain? What order was taken upon these complaints?

III. To whom was this service intrusted? What answer was returned?

IV. What instructions did the British ministry give upon this?

What forces were raised? Who was appointed to command? Give an account of Washington's expedition.

V. What did the British ministry recommend to the colonies in 1754? What was the result?

VI. What expeditions were planned against the French in 1755?

VII. Give particulars of the expedition against Nova Scotia.

VIII. Of that against the French on the Ohio.

IX. Of that against Crown Point.

X. Why was that against Niagara abandoned?

XI. What was the plan of operation for the campaign of 1756? Who was appointed commander in chief? Why did this campaign fail?

XII. What preparations were made for 1757?

XIII. Give an account of the capture of Fort William Henry? What is said of the defence of the Fort, by Col. Munroe? What of the conduct of Gen. Webb? What of the massacre at the fort?

XIV. What change took place in the British ministry in 1758? What was the consequence of Mr. Pitt's accession to the ministry?

XV. What expeditions were planned for 1758?

XVI. Relate the circumstances of the siege and capture of Louisburg. What places and stores fell into the hands of the British?

XVII. What was the result of an attack on Ticonderoga by Gen. Abercrombie? Give an account of the capture of Fort Frontenac.

XVIII. Of the expedition against Fort Du Quesne, under Gen. Forbes. Whence did Pittsburg derive its name?

XIX. What treaty was negotiated in 1758?

XX. What was the plan of the campaign for 1759? who succeeded to the chief command?

XXI. Relate the circumstances of the capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

XXII. Those of the siege of Niagara.

XXIII. What is said of the siege and capture of Quebec by Gen. Wolfe? What is said of the death of Wolfe? What of that of Montcalm?

XXIV. Did the capture of Quebec terminate the war?

XXV. What attempts were made by the French to retake Quebec? Were they successful?

XXVI. Give an account of the reduction of Montreal. What other places were surrendered to his Britannick Majesty at this time?

XXVII. How long had war continued, and what is said of the return of peace?

XXVIII. Give an account of the war with the Cherokees in the south.

XXXIX. When did peace take place between France and England?

NOTES.

XXX. What was the principal change in the Manners of the colonists during this period?

XXXI. What religious sect was introduced into America? What is said of the religious character of the colonists before and after the French War?

XXXII. What is said of Trade and Commerce?

XXXIII. What of Agriculture?

XXXIV. What of Arts and Manufactures?

XXXV. What of Population?

XXXVI. What College was founded? What University?

Period V

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section. I. When and where was shed the first blood in the war of the revolution?

II. *On the removal of the colonists from England did they design to establish an independent government? How did they long regard the mother country? What were some of the acts of the British parliament which the colonies would not submit to, and which prepared the way for the revolution?*

III. *On the arrival of the news of the stamp act, what did the colonial assemblies do? What resolutions particularly did Virginia pass?*

IV. What did Massachusetts recommend in 1774? Where did that congress meet, and what did they do?

V. What was done in several places when the stamp act came into operation? What sensations were produced in the colonies by the repeal of the stamp act?

VI. What unjust act followed the repeal, in 1767? What associations were formed in the colonies upon this?

VII. What still more odious acts passed parliament in 1769? What did the house of burgesses in Virginia do upon this?

VIII. What took place in Boston on the evening of the 5th of March, 1770? *Give particulars.*

IX. What did parliament do in 1773, to assist the East India Company to dispose of their tea? What was the fate of that sent to America?

X. How was the conduct of the Americans in respect to this tea regarded in England? What was the Boston port bill? What other bills passed at this time?

XI. What vote did the Boston people take on the subject of the Boston port bill? What did Virginia do?

XII. Give an account of the continental congress which met at Philadelphia in 1774, of their proceedings. Who was their president and secretary?

XIII. Give an account of the provincial assembly ordered by Gov. Gage, in Massachusetts. What did they do?

XIV. *What bill was brought forward in the house of peers by Lord Chatham in 1775? How was it treated? What bill followed next day?*

XV. Give the particulars of the destruction of some stores at Concord, by order of Gen. Gage, and of the battle of Lexington?

XVI. What effect had the battle of Lexington? What did the provincial congress of Massachusetts do?

XVII. When and by whom were Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken?

XVIII. Give an account of the battle of Bunker's or Breed's hill.

XIX. Whom did the second continental congress appoint commander in chief of the armies in America?

XX. To what was the attention of Gen. Washington directed on taking command of the army at Cambridge? What was his success?

XXI. Give an account of the invasion of Canada, by Generals Schuyler and Montgomery—of the taking of St. Johns—of Montreal—of the expedition of Col. Arnold, by the way of the Kennebec? Relate the particulars of the siege of Quebec by Montgomery—of his fall—of the evacuation of Canada.

XXII. *What contest arose between Lord Dunmore and the assembly of Virginia? How did it end? What town did Dunmore burn?*

XXIII. When and on what account did the British evacuate Boston. Who took possession of it? *What was the condition of Boston at this time?*

XXIV. *What attempt was made against fort Sullivan in South Carolina, about this time, by Gen. Clinton? What was the consequence of this repulse of the enemy to the southern states?*

XXV. What motion was made in congress, June 7th, by Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia? When were the colonies declared to be independent? Under what title? *How was the declaration of independence received by the people?*

XXVI. When and for what reason did Gen. Washington move with his army to New-York?

XXVII. What English forces shortly after arrived off Sandy Hook?

XXVIII. *What attempt at negotiation was made by Admiral and Gen. Howe, through Gen. Washington? Why was their communication not received?*

XXIX. Give the particulars of the battle on Long Island.

XXX. When was New-York evacuated by the American army? What battle soon followed?

XXXI. Through what places did Washington retreat from White Plains? What was the aspect of things at this time? *What did congress recommend?*

XXXII. When did congress agree upon articles of confederation between the States?

XXXIII. What success did Washington meet with at Trenton?

What a few days after at Princeton? What was the effect of these successes?

XXXIV. In the summer of '77, whither did Howe sail with his troops? What was his object? What did Washington do to counteract his designs? Where did the armies engage? What was the result?

XXXV. When did Howe enter Philadelphia? Where were the English troops stationed? Where the American?

XXXVI. Relate the particulars of the engagement at Germantown? Why did the Americans fail?

XXXVII. What invasion was it determined in England, in 1777, to attempt, and what communication to open? To whom was the execution of this plan committed.

XXXVIII. What was done by Gen. Burgoyne towards executing this plan? What did Gen. St. Clair do? After the taking of Ticonderoga, whither did Gen. Burgoyne direct his march?

XXXIX. Relate the particulars of the attempt by the British to seize some stores at Bennington? Give the particulars of the battle of Bennington?

XL. After this battle, what was Gen. Burgoyne compelled to do? Give an account of the battle of Saratoga, and the surrender of the royal army. Who commanded the American troops at this time?

XLI. What treaty soon followed, and was hastened by the capture of Burgoyne?

XLII. *On the conclusion of the year '77, where did the British establish their winter quarters? Where the Americans theirs? What was the condition of the latter during the winter?*

XLIII. When did the British evacuate Philadelphia? Why? Where did they go? What battle was had on their retreat? Give an account of it.

XLIV. What French forces arrived in July? Where? For what object? *What naval engagement took place? What was the result?*

XLV. At the close of the year 1778, what quarter of the United States became the principal theatre of the war? What attempt was made upon Georgia? With what success?

XLVI. For what was the campaign of 1779 distinguished? *To what acts did the British chiefly confine themselves? What towns did Gen. Tryon burn?*

XLVII. What bold and successful enterprise, however, did Gen. Wayne attempt? *Give the particulars.*

XLVIII. *What other expedition did Gen. Sullivan lead?*

XLIX. *What were some of the causes which prevented much exertion on the part of the Americans in the campaign of '79? What was the leading cause? With what sort of money did congress carry on the war? How great a sum in bills had been issued by the year 1780? What were the causes of its depreciation? What evils resulted from its depreciation? How did Congress endeavour to keep up the credit of their bills? What was the consequence?*

L. Give an account of the siege and capture of Charleston, by Gen. Clinton, in 1780.

LI. Whom did Clinton leave to command in the south? Why were garrisons posted in several parts of the State? What did Gen. Sumpter do?

LII. Who succeeded Gen. Lincoln in the south? Who commanded the British on the frontiers under Cornwallis? Give the particulars of the battle of Camden? *What distinguished officer fell in this battle?*

LIII. *How did the issue of the battle of Camden affect the people of the United States? From this date, what can you say of the people of the United States?*

LIV. What is said of the campaign of 1780, in the northern States? *What of Gen. Kniphausen's excursion into New-Jersey? What was the condition of the American army at this time?*

LV. *What appeared to be the general state of feeling in the public bodies?*

LVI. What French force arrived at Rhode Island in July? Who commanded this fleet? Who the land force? *Which fleet, the British or the French, was still the superior?*

LVII. What is said of the attempt of Arnold to deliver West Point into the hands of the British? *What British officer was concerned with Arnold? What became of Arnold? What of Andre? Give particulars.*

LVIII. *What effort did Gen. Washington make to take Arnold and save Andre? Tell the story.*

LIX. What mutiny broke out in 1781? *Give particulars.*

LX. What is said of the depredations of Arnold in Virginia? *What efforts were made to check him? With what success?*

LXI. Who succeeded Gen. Gates in the southern department, after the battle of Camden? What did he do?

LXII. Give an account of the battle of the Cowpens?

LXIII. After the defeat of Tarleton, at the Cowpens, what is said of Cornwallis? Give an account of Greene's retreat before him into Virginia.

LXIV. Where did Cornwallis retire to and erect his royal standard? With what success?

LXV. Give an account of Greene's return from Virginia, and of the battle at Guilford Court-House.

LXVI. Whither did Greene go after this battle? How did the battle of Camden terminate?

LXVII. Upon the whole, what was the result of this battle? What posts soon after fell into the hands of the Americans?

LXVIII. Relate the circumstances of the attack on Ninety-Six.

LXIX. Give an account of the battle of the Eutaw Springs.

LXX. What is said of this battle? *What of Greene as an officer?*

LXXI. After the battle of Guilford, where did Lord Cornwallis go? *By whom was he opposed?*

LXXII. What was the plan of 1781, as settled by Washington,

&c. at Wethersfield? What alteration did Gen. Washington make in this plan? Why?

LXXIII. Give an account of his march, of his interview with Count de Grasse, &c.

LXXIV. Relate the circumstances of the siege and capture of Cornwallis.

LXXV. What is said of the arrival of Sir Henry Clinton, five days after, and of his conduct?

LXXVI. How were the people affected at the fate of Cornwallis?

LXXVII. Give an account of Arnold's expedition into Connecticut.

LXXVIII. What is said of the fall of Cornwallis?

LXXIX. What motions had been made in the house of commons from December, 1781, to March, 1782? What at this latter date did the commons resolve?

LXXX. Who succeeded Sir Henry Clinton to the command of the British army, and what did he do?

LXXXI. For what purposes were commissioners appointed? At whose instance? Who were they? When were provisional articles of peace agreed upon? When was the definitive treaty signed?

LXXXII. When and where was the American army disbanded?

LXXXIII. How did Washington address his officers when about to leave them?

LXXXIV. What did he say to Congress when resigning his commission?

LXXXV. What was the reply of president Mifflin? From Congress, whither did Washington retire?

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

How long was the revolutionary war? (Compare sec. 17. with sec. 81.) Mention some of the principal battles. (sec. 17, 29, 34, 36, 39, 40, 62, 65, 68, 69, 74.)

NOTES.

LXXXVI. At the commencement of the revolutionary war, of whom were the people of America composed? Why had they little encouragement for exertion and enterprize before this event? What change now took place? How were the manners and morals of the people affected by the war?

LXXXVII. What effect had the revolution on religious prejudices, controversies, &c.? What were some of its mischievous effects on religion generally? How came it to exert such unhappy effects?

LXXXVIII. What is said of Trade and Commerce during this period?

LXXXIX. What of Agriculture?

XC. What was the progress of Arts and Manufactures?

XCI. What was the number of inhabitants in the United States at the close of the war? To what causes is their small increase to be ascribed?

XCII. How were the interests of education affected by the war? What colleges were founded in 1782, and in 1783? What was the whole number of colleges and academies in the United States in 1784?

Period IX.

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I. During the revolutionary war, to what were the people looking forward? How far did they realize their expectations?

II. At the close of the war, what was the amount of the national debt? What powers had congress in relation to the discharge of this debt? What did congress propose to the states? How was this proposal treated? What was the consequence of the failure of this proposal?

III. What causes hastened a change in the government of the United States?

IV. What insurrection took place in Massachusetts about this time? What caused it? What is it called? Give an account of it.

V. What resolution did Virginia adopt in 1786? To what did this resolution ultimately lead? How many states were represented in the convention which met at Annapolis? What course did the convention take? What states sent commissioners to Philadelphia the next May? Who was chosen President?

VI. When was the Federal Constitution presented to congress? What can you say of the legislative power of the United States? What of the Senate? What of the powers of the two houses of congress? What of the powers of congress? What of restrictions? What of the executive? What of the powers of the President? What of the judiciary? What of rights and immunities?

VII. What is said of the adoption of the constitution by the states?

VIII. On the adoption of the constitution, who was chosen the first President? Who Vice President?

NOTES.

IX. What is said of the Manners of the people of the United States in this period?

X. When, and under whose direction, was Methodism introduced into the country? What is said of Infidelity? What of Religion?

XI. What is said of Commerce after the war? What was the amount of imports the year after the war? Was the balance of trade with England in favour of the United States or against them? What is said of the trade with France? When did the China trade

begin? When the North West Coast trade? What was the state of the whale fishery after the war? When was cotton first exported?

XII. What is said of Agriculture during this period?

XIII. What checked the progress of Manufactures during this period? What kind of articles were manufactured?

XIV. About what was the Population in 1789?

XV. What Colleges were established during this period? What is said of attention to Education generally?

Period VII.

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I. When was Gen. Washington inaugurated?

II. What business of importance early engaged the attention of congress? In what way was a revenue proposed to be raised? Who were appointed to fill the several departments of government? Who was appointed chief justice? What is said of amendments to the constitution? What did congress, before they adjourned, direct the secretary of the treasury to do?

III. During the recess of congress, what tour did the president make?

IV. What report did the secretary of the treasury make on the second opening of the first congress? In that report, what did he recommend? How was this report received? What was the effect upon the country of adopting the course recommended in this report?

V. What resolution passed congress, during this session, respecting the seat of government?

VI. When was Vermont admitted to the Union?

VII. During the third session of congress, what tax was imposed by congress? By whom was it opposed?

VIII. What is said of the bill for the establishment of a national bank? On what ground was it opposed? How did the president proceed in relation to it? What effect upon parties had the first measures of congress?

IX. What war broke out about this time? What expedition was fitted out against the Indians? To whom was the command given? Give some account of his defeat? Who succeeded?

X. Give an account of President Washington's southern tour?

XI. What bill did the second congress pass respecting representatives from states?

XII. Relate the circumstances of the defeat of Gen. St. Clair

XIII. On the news of the defeat of St. Clair, what measures were taken by congress to increase the army? What opposition was made to this proposal, and on what ground?

XIV. What is said of increase of party spirit on the adjournment of congress, May, 1792?

XV. When was Kentucky admitted as a state to the Union?

XVI. What unsuccessful efforts were made, about this time, to negotiate a peace with the Indians?

XVII. What attempts were made on the meeting of congress, in November, to criminate the secretary of the treasury, and how did he meet them?

XVIII. What is said of the election of Washington to the presidency, in 1793?

XIX. What treaty was negotiated with the Indians about this time? And why were offensive operations against the Miamis suspended?

XX. What event in Europe, about this time, 1793, excited great interest in the United States? How were the people affected towards France and England? What course did the president take? How was the act of neutrality regarded?

XXI. What minister did the republic of France send to the United States? Give some account of the manner in which he was received, and of his conduct. What did the American cabinet advise in regard to Mr. Genet?

XXII. What change took place in the cabinet in 1794?

XXIII. What is said of the increase of the navy this year? And why was it increased?

XXIV. What law passed congress, during this session, respecting the slave trade? How long had England been engaged in the slave trade, when the first settlement was made in America? When and where were the first slaves introduced into America? How did the colonies early regard the traffick? What efforts did they make to prevent it? When did Virginia abolish the traffick by law? When did Connecticut, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts?

XXV. What measures were taken by congress in anticipation of a war with Great Britain? By whom were our differences with that nation adjusted? What causes existed which rendered a war probable? How was the nomination of Mr. Jay to the court of Great Britain regarded by many?

XXVI. Who gained a complete victory over the Indians in the west, in 1794? Give an account of it.

XXVII. Relate the circumstances of an insurrection in Pennsylvania, in 1794. To what was the insurrection attributable?

XXVIII. What changes took place in the cabinet, in 1795?

XXIX. What is said of the ratification of Mr. Jay's treaty with England?

XXX. When was Tennessee admitted to the Union?

XXXI. What took place in congress with respect to the treaty with Great Britain?

XXXII. When did Gen. Washington retire from the presidency, and who succeeded him? Who was elected Vice President?

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

at new states were added to the Union during this period (see.

6, 15, '30.) What wars occurred? (sec. 9.) What treaties were negotiated? (sec 19, 32.)

NOTES.

XXXIV. What is said of the state of Manners during this period?

XXXV. What was the state of Religion? *Why was infidelity extensively spread through the United States? What writers contributed, by their works, to give infidelity currency? What brought infidelity, in a measure, into discredit?*

XXXVI. What is said of Trade and Commerce? *What was the amount of exports in 1797? What of imports?*

XXXVII. Did Agriculture flourish? *What proportion of the population were employed in agricultural pursuits?*

XXXVIII. What is said of the attention to Manufactures? *Who made a report on the subject to congress? What effects had that report?*

XXXIX. What was the population at the close of this period?

XL. What is said of attention to learning, since the adoption of the federal constitution? *What colleges were founded during this period?*

Period VIII.

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I. When did Mr. Adams succeed to the Presidency? *What was the condition of the country at this time?*

II. What was France meditating at this time? *Who had been appointed, by Washington, minister to that court? What did the French Republick state to him as its determinations? Upon this, what did Mr. Adams do? Whom did congress appoint envoy extraordinary?*

III. What was the success of this mission? *What were the demands of the French government? What treatment did the envoys receive? What was done by the French cruisers?*

IV. What measures were adopted by congress? *Who was appointed commander in chief?*

V. While preparations for war were going on, what indirect overtures were made by the French? *What did Mr. Adams do? Who were appointed envoys? On their arrival in France, who held the government? What was the issue of their negotiations?*

VI. When and where did Gen. Washington die?

VII. When was the seat of government transferred from Philadelphia to Washington in the district of Columbia?

VIII. What is said of the unpopular character of Mr. Adams' administration? *Why was it thus unpopular? Give an account of the alien law, and of the sedition law.*

X. Give an account of the strife about Mr. Adams' successor. *Who was at length elected? Who was chosen Vice President?*

- X. What is said of Mannere during this period?
- XI. Did infidelity make much progress? What tended to check it?
- XII. What is said of Trade and Commerce?
- XIII. What of Agriculture?
- XIV. What of Arts and Manufactures?
- XV. What was about the number of inhabitants in the United States at the close of this period?
- XVI. What Colleges were founded?

Period XX.

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I. When did Mr. Jefferson enter upon his first term of office?

II. How did Mr. Jefferson commence his administration? Why? Give an account of a remonstrance from New-Haven? What was his reply?

III. What did he recommend to congress at their first meeting after his election? Did his recommendations prevail?

IV. When was Ohio admitted into the Union?

V. When was Gen. Hamilton killed in a duel with Col. Burr?

VI. When did Mr. Jefferson enter upon his second term?

VII. What treaty was concluded in 1805? What were some of its stipulations? Give a history of the war with Tripoli.

VIII. When did Michigan become a territory?

IX. In what project was Aaron Burr detected, in the autumn of 1806? What was the issue of his trial? Give an account of his projects.

X. What is necessary in order to understand the subsequent political history of the United States? What course was America endeavouring to pursue? What controversy had long existed between the United States and Great Britain? Had any adjustment taken place?

XI. What order did the British government issue, May 18, 1806?

XII. What decree did Bonaparte issue in the following November? What did this decree declare?

XIII. What did the British government do upon this?

XIV. What event occurred about this time which excited great indignation in the United States? Give an account of the affair.

XV. What did the president do in consequence of the attack? What instructions were sent to Mr. Monroe, minister to England, in relation to this affair? What was the reply of the British minister to the demands of Mr. Monroe? Upon the negotiation between the Americans and the British minister being suspended, what minister was sent to the United States? What were his instructions?

XVI. What is said of congress at this time? Give an account of the president's message.

XVII. When were the celebrated British orders in council issued? What did they declare?

XVIII. Before the arrival of Mr. Bosc, how was congress employed? What acts, deeply affecting commerce, passed Dec. 22?

XIX. What decree did Bonaparte issue retaliatory upon Great Britain for her orders in council? *What did this decree declare?*

XX. On the arrival of Mr. Bosc, what took place? What did he require before he would offer any reparation for the attack on the Chesapeake? On what condition did the president consent to annul his proclamation? Why was further negotiation broken off?

XXI. What act passed congress, March 1st, 1809?

XXII. Who was elected president, 1809? Who was vice-president?

Notes.

XXIII. What is said of the effects of party spirit on the Manners of society?

XXIV. What is said of Religion?

XXV. About what year did Trade and Commerce make great advances? What was the coasting trade? Was it profitable?

In 1805, 6, and 7, what was the annual average amount of exports? What of imports? What is said of a large proportion of articles imported? When did commerce begin to decline?

XXVI. What encouragement was given to Agriculture? From what source? When and by whom were merino sheep introduced into the country?

XXVII. What is said of Arts and Manufactures?

XXVIII. About what was the Population of the United States at the close of Jefferson's Administration?

XXIX. What is said of Education?

Period X.

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I. When was Mr. Madison inaugurated? *What was the state of the country?*

II. What act passed congress, March 1st, 1809, and in consequence of it, what took place with Mr. Erskine, the British minister? What proclamation did the president issue? What did the British government declare? What other proclamation, upon this, did the president issue?

III. Who succeeded Mr. Erskine? Why was the correspondence between him and the secretary of state closed?

IV. What decree did Bonaparte issue at Rambouillet in 1810? Why?

V. What act passed congress, May 1st, 1810?

VI. In consequence of this act, of what did the French minister inform the American minister? What did the president then do?

VII. What unhappy engagement took place, May, 1811?

VIII. When did congress meet? What was the tenor of the president's message? What of the reports of the committee on foreign relations? What bills passed?

IX. What battle was fought, Nov. 7th?

X. When was Louisiana admitted to the Union?

XI. What act passed congress, April 3d?

XII. What bills followed in June? What were the alleged grounds of the war? What did the minority in Congress do?

XIII. What was the state of the military establishments of the country at this time?

XIV. When, where, and to whom, did Gen. Hull surrender?

XV. Give an account of the capture of the *Guerriere*.

XVI. To what object was the attention of the American general directed? Into how many divisions was the army distributed? What were they called? By whom commanded?

XVII. Give an account of the attack on Queenstown.

XVIII. _____ of the capture of the British brig *Boxer*,

XIX. _____ of the British frigate *Macedonian*.

XX. _____ of the British frigate *Java*.

XXI. What is said of the end of the year 1812?

XXII. _____ of a battle fought at the river Raisin?

XXIII. Give particulars of the capture of the *Peacock*.

XXIV. When was Mr. Madison re-elected?

XXV. Who were sent commissioners to Russia, 1813?

XXVI. What is said of the capture of York, (U. C.)?

XXVII. What events occurred in the remainder of the spring?

XXVIII. Give an account of the loss of the *Chesapeake*.

XXIX. _____ of the capture of the *Argus* by the *Pelican*,

XXX. _____ of the *Boxer* by the *Enterprise*.

XXXI. _____ of the naval engagement on Lake Erie

XXXII. _____ of the taking of Malden and Detroit.

XXXIV. Who succeeded Gen. Dearborn in the command of the army? Give an account of the plan for taking Montreal.

XXXV. When and where did the commissioners, appointed, meet?

XXXVI. When and by whom was the *Essex* captured?

XXXVII. _____ was the British brig *Epervier* captured?

XXXVIII. Give an account of the capture of Washington.

XXXIX. _____ of the attack on Baltimore.

XL. _____ of the naval engagement on Lake Champlain.

XLII. _____ of the convention which met at Hartford.

XLIII. _____ of the attack upon New-Orleans.

XLIV. _____ of the treaty of peace with England.

XLV. _____ of the treaty with Algiers.

XLVIII. What is said of the capture of the frigate *President*? &c.

XLIX. _____ of the establishment of a National Bank?

L. How did the summer of 1816 pass away?

I. When was Indiana admitted to the Union?

LII. Who was elected president? who vice president?

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

What wars occurred during this period? (sec. 12, 45.) What were some of the most important naval engagements? (sec. 7, 15, 18, 19, 20, 23, 28, 29, 30, 31, 36, 37, 41, 48)—some of the battles by land (sec. 17, 22, 26, 32, 34, 38, 39, 41, 43)—What states were admitted to the Union? (sec. 10, 51.)

NOTES.

LIII. What is said on the subject of Manners?

LIV. What of Religion?

LV. What was the state of Commerce?

LVI. What is said of Agriculture?

LVII. What of Arts and Manufactures?

LVIII. What of Population?

LIX. What of Education?

Period XX.

What is the extent of this Period, and for what is it distinguished?

Section I. When was Mr. Monroe inaugurated? What was the state of the country?

II. *What tour did the President make, 1817?*

III. What was the tenor of his first message to congress?

IV. When was Mississippi admitted to the Union?

V. What is said of the taking of Amelia Island by the Americans?

VI. What bills of importance passed congress, 1817, 18?

VII. When was Illinois admitted to the Union?

VIII. *What is said of the second tour of the President?*

IX. Give an account of the treaty with Sweden?

X. Of the Seminole war.

XI. Of the convention with Great Britain, 1819.

XII. Of the treaty with Spain by which Florida was ceded to the United States.

XIII. When was the Arkansas territory organized?

XIV. *What is said of the third tour of the President?*

XV. When was Alabama admitted to the Union?

XVI. When was Maine admitted?

XVIII. When was Mr. Monroe re-elected?

XIX. When was Missouri admitted?

XX. What law passed the 17th congress about representation?

XXI. When was a territorial government formed for Florida?

XXII. What bill passed the second session of the 17th congress, respecting Pirates?

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

What wars occurred (sec. 10.)—What treaties were negotiated (sec. 9, 11, 12.)—What states admitted (sec. 4, 7, 13, 15, 16, 19, 21.)

NOTES.

XXIII. What is said of the Manners of the people of the United States?

XXIV. What of the principal denominations of Religion?

XXV. What of Commerce?

XXVI. What of Agriculture?

XXVII. What of Arts and Manufactures?

XXVIII. What of Population?

XXIX. What of Education?

